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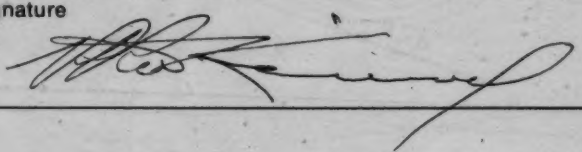

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND COMPREHENSIVE PLANNING: SOME INTERDISCIPLINARY MODELS

by

© RONALD RICHARD WILSON KINNEY

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF MASTER OF ARTS

DIVISION OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

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SPRING, 1980

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This thesis is dedicated to my wife, Shirley, and my children, Kevin, Randa and Philip, all of whom have been patient.

ABSTRACT

This study suggests that Community Development is one of the most important and fundamental of all social phenomena, because it is the main vehicle for social change. It is a process powered by group restlessness, and is present whenever and wherever a group of people exists. Because it is so basic and universal, it is also interdisciplinary.

Three levels of Community Development are described: Perpetual Community Development, which is the primal striving for change through groups; Enhanced Community Development, which is the purposive intervention of a trained outsider; and Continuous Community Development, which reflects the ultimate ability of groups to achieve beneficial social change on their own. Models are developed for these, and the process flow described. A final Community Development model is then constructed and analyzed.

It is suggested that Community Development is truly a wholistic general practice that can and should be combined with out disciplines. This proposal is tested by using a model of Comprehensive Community Planning as manifested by its most usual Alberta case, the General Municipal Plan preparation process. It turns out that either can be completely integrated with the other with complete facility and without loss of structural integrity or identity. Both processes are strengthened by the addition.

Community Development is, therefore, regarded as being an ongoing, natural outcome of the existence of groups, which can be focussed

and made more effective by applied techniques. As such, it can become an important field of study and practice in its own right, and as a key ingredient in a number of other disciplines.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A. The Situation

Community Development, as a subject of study and of practice, has evolved from informal beginnings to an art that has been described and applied many times in the last quarter of a century. While more precise definitions are left to later in this work, the discipline seems to have a number of common elements with that of Comprehensive Planning, which has also evolved from humble beginnings to a subject of study and professional practice.

The subject and practice of Community Development has developed an extensive literature, but comparatively less definitive theory. Most interested observers would accept that the subject involves a striving of human groups for mutual betterment, usually through a process of cooperative self-help. The overt practice of Community Development is carried out through individuals whose purpose it is to facilitate that process by the application of techniques which help to focus felt needs and to initiate action.

Inherent in the process is the idea that community development practitioners work directly and empathetically with local people, usually maintaining a low profile, in spite of the fact that funding may come from some agency whose views and practices he or she may be called upon to oppose or at least help to question. Once begun, the CD function is

mostly unpredictable: this seems basic to the nature of the subject itself. Some groups are not satisfied until a demonstrable change in social conditions has been effected: others settle for the excitement of the process.

During the past half-century, the idea of helping disadvantaged or impotent groups to help themselves has evolved in many countries and areas. Often, initial enthusiasm has evolved into ineffective ambiguity, and many costly, highly-touted programmes have been abandoned or nearly so.[1] Community Development has achieved a poor reputation because of the apparent conflicts of interest within groups and between sponsors and field workers, and between these people and the tradftions or outlooks of the groups they seek to help. Cancelled programmes are a poor advertisement for the process. Communication, mutual understanding and motivation, three of the key ingredients of success, suffer accordingly.

Yet, in spite of all of the adverse publicity, community development ideas and manifestations continue to circulate, and the concept can never really be counted down and out, for it seems to have a myriad of guises under which it can reappear and, for a while, flourish.

Community Development seems to come in cycles, dependent at least in part on the economic and social structure of the times. It is rarely universally in flower, yet even in its quiet periods there are particular places or facets of activity. But often attempts to create, prolong, or revive the process have led gradually to frustration.[2]

Another basic touchstone process is that of Comprehensive Community Planning, wherein attempts are made to influence future physical and economic development, especially within urban areas, and in regional contexts.

The similarities between the two processes are many: both require trained practitioners and volunteers; both deal with future goals and aspirations; both are fundamentally concerned with the welfare of citizens; both use the written and spoken word to communicate, dialogue, explore alternatives, and debate solutions; both are largely dependent on public funds; both are concerned with public policy. The differences are in part in goals, in part in subject, and in part in technique. Both processes are, from time to time, suspect in the public mind, and are quite often mistrusted by powerful manipulators who rightly perceive that the processes are not in their own best interests. Thus, both must sometimes struggle against a countercurrent that seeks to destroy or neutralize their achievements.

B. The Problem

Community Development and Comprehensive Planning are both processes which attempt to influence the future towards some more desirable goal. Quite often the processes are similar, as is the methodology and the data bases. Yet rarely do the two cooperate in a concerted attempt to manifest their goals.

Community Development is considered by many to be a marginal, ineffective and time-consuming way of attempting all but very local, relatively unimportant development. Comprehensive Planning is viewed as restrictive, unnatural and similarly ineffective in the large-scale milieu for which it was invented.

Yet both processes possess the structural ability to effect major change in a positive way. The problem becomes how to link the two thrusts in such a way as to enhance the ability of each to perform to its highest possibility. Mutual confidence, understanding and

communication must be re-established.

This study reviews methods of re-evaluating each of these thrusts in such a way as to allow them to join forces in a concerted, reinforced but flexible methodology.

C. Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study are to re-assess in a critical manner the basic dynamics of the community development process by considering the existence of a fundamental propensity of groups to desire progress in their social environment, to describe how this might be the practice of community development in an undeveloped stage, how this might be enhanced by the application of modern group management techniques, and to apply the models thus derived to a derived model of Comprehensive Planning in such a way as to highlight the similarities between the two processes and thus create a workable Interdisciplinary Model.

D. Research Procedures

This study accepts the premiss that Community Development is, indeed, a concept worthy of a distinct claim to attention in its own right, and that Comprehensive Planning, especially as it is manifest in Alberta, can be recognized as a special and articulate professional art.

Comprehensive Planning, in this study, will be represented by the most usual Alberta case, that of the General Municipal Plan, which is a required document in all urban municipalities of 1,000 people or more, and all rural municipalities of 10,000 people or more.

The research for this study consists almost entirely of an extensive review of the available literature from both fields. Where

possible, this was augmented by personal interviews.

The methodology used in developing the concepts and models is essentially propositional: that is to say, it is based upon an interpretation of the literature and of the subjects concerned, and is developed by what are hopefully logical extensions of certain basic tenents.

What emerges is a hypothesis in the form of an Interdisciplinary model of Community Development that can also be used in Comprehensive Planning. Where possible within the framework of the argument, the models and perspectives are defended by reference to actual conditions or applications, as quoted in the literature or otherwise researched.

E. Relevance to Community Development

An Interdisciplinary model which maintains a structural integrity while being used by either Community Development practitioners or Community Planners can have a positive impact on the subject bodies and practices of both fields. With specific reference to Community Development, the existence of such a model and its proved applicability would allow a cross-fertilization of ideas and energy that would perhaps instill new life into a discipline that some have already described as "marginal".[3] Further, it would allow new insight into group dynamics and open up new perspectives for research of the subject as a discipline. The training of community development practitioners would become more efficient, because not only could ideas and techniques from allied disciplines be used with more comfortability, but the practitioners themselves would have more scope for learning and could be drawn from a

wider milieu. A successful demonstration of the model's compatability with at least one other recognized discipline would highlight points of commonality rather than discord between the two and thus make for a more cooperative climate in which to practice both.

More efficient budgeting of programmes and thrusts would be possible because the wider applicability of the basic techniques allows a better understanding and more effective costing and expense system, especially in the public domain where most of the application is liable to be placed.

The existence of a basic and perpetual community development thrust, no matter how primitive or weak at any given time, would argue well for the continued expenditure of public time, energy and resources into applied community development practice. And finally, it is always healthy for a discipline to view itself from different perspectives once in a while in order to establish its claim to progressiveness.

F. Limitations of the Study

This is essentially an argument: a thesis, a new perspective. It is meant neither to be definitive nor quantitative. Since it sets out certain proposals, such as Perpetual Community Development, it is in a sense re-evaluating the subject, and subjecting it to a critical, close analysis of an hypothetical nature. The same is true for the descriptions of the Alberta case of Comprehensive Planning, called General Municipal Planning. Both Community Development and Comprehensive Planning lack accepted definitive statements of their essence, and yet both are presumed to exist in the real world. This being so, the present study does not purport to justify one against the other,

or either as a discipline—it is merely an expression of a common bond between them. Neither model of Community Development derived herein is absolute in the sense that it describes fully and finally the exact process: so, too, with the General Municipal Plan models and sub-models.

This study should be read as an attempt to bring two relatively vague disciplines together in some sense of structure, if only to show that there is enough commonality to merit cooperation between the two fields.

G. Plan of the Study

This study contains five chapters, each dealing with one aspect of the problem. A short Introduction (Chapter I) lays out the problem and the framework within which the study will travel. Chapter II is a review of the relevant literature. Chapter III is a development of one of the central themes of the work: that Community Development has two dimensions--a natural one termed "perpetual" and an artificial one termed "applied". A model of the process suggested by each is derived and described, and then the two dimensions are synthesized to produce the subject called community development which is carried forward into the rest of the study.

Chapter IV describes in some detail the dimensions and sub-processes of the General Municipal Plan preparation technique as it is generally practiced in Alberta. This is the representative of Comprehensive Planning used in the study. Chapter V is the definitive portion, for it develops the Interdisciplinary Model through a synthesis and analysis of the community development and general plan models and processes previously described.

Notes and References - Chapter I

1. The literature is replete with examples of CD programmes or projects which have been initiated, particularly in under-developed countries, with great enthusiasm, but have either not accomplished their initial aims, or have not withstood the passage of time. And the trend is not new.
   T. R. Batten, writing in the Community Development Journal (9-2, 1964), in an article entitled "The Major Issues and Future Direction of CD", laments: "As I look back over my years of research, study and fieldwork, my overall feeling is one of sadness that so much CD effort has, on the whole, resulted in relatively so little actual betterment." p. 96.

2. Batten, ibid., observes, during his lament on the relative inefficacy of CD programmes: "What concerns me much more is that the well-intentioned efforts of so many planners, administrators and field workers who really want to promote betterment have fallen short of their full potential."

3. For example, see K. Jackson, "The Marginality of CD", International Review of Community Development (No. 29-30, 1973).

CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A. Introduction

Both Community Development and Comprehensive Planning have extensive literatures, mostly of recent date. In both cases, the available material can be roughly divided into two types: promulgated theory and applied methodology, including described case studies. Neither of these are wholly applicable to the present study. In the case of the theoretical works, principles and philosophic postulations have often been given in isolation to other disciplines; applied methodological descriptions have usually taken the form of guidebooks for application of specific techniques; and case studies have almost always focussed upon the developmental problem and subsequent action phases. The main focus of this study is the interior dynamic process which initiates such action phases as may come into being.

Enough literature is pertinent, however, to be useful. Much of this is reviewed in this Chapter, but subsequent development of the study requires steady attention to the literature as well, and not all aspects are, therefore, covered here. The reader will discover new references as the study progresses.

B. Community Development

The literature is replete with definitions of Community Development. Quite often these represent attempts to characterize the subject

according to specific views held by the particular author. One of the basics most seem agreed upon is the view that Community Development comprises a process (Biddle and Biddle, 1965; Moe, 1971; Bregha, 1973; Hynam, 1973; Nisbet, 1973; Karunaratne, 1976; Goulet, 1977, Lotz, 1977; Roberts, 1979).[1]

"Process" is defined in one of the standard dictionaries as "an action or series of actions which brings about a particular result or product".[2] Many authorities seem to agree that this process involves some form of group dynamics and therapy, perhaps resulting in group action for change. The words "change" and "growth" and "development" are sometimes used interchangeably. Lotz suggests each has a more specific, significant meaning, but that all are part of the Community Development process.[3] "Change", he claims, means "what once was is no longer". It can be complete or partial, negative or positive, and in any direction. It can benefit some individuals and groups while at the same time harming others. "Growth" suggests an increase in dimension or mass or quantity and is commonly applied to quantitative change. "Development" implies a process, a time scale and an objective. Here, the change can be either quantitative or qualitative.

The matter of the inherent nature of Community Development has attracted several authors. Biddle and Biddle[4] view it as empathetic altruism based upon humanitarian principles, and upon low-key input by patient practicioners whose influence is subject to group consensus, and where the objective of the intervention is to place the group in a position where the field worker will no longer be needed. The process is thus an attempt to allow intrinsic individual opinions to become group policies through a process of discussion and goal-setting exercises.

According to this view of the subject, the major thrust is focussed on core groups which can grow and evolve.

Another view is that community development is concerned with total community life rather than any one segment (Dunham)[5]. Problem-solving, self-help participation, and goal-setting are characteristics, but so are other, more rigorous activities such as technical input and analysis, and technical assistance. The field is regarded as inter-disciplinary, and concerned with both task and process goals. It also involves education.

Jack Rothman[6] has suggested three models of community organization practice, one of which is community development. Model "A" he labels "locality development" in which he envisions a self-help, total-community, group-cooperative process that is interested in process goals as distinct from task goals ("process goals" meaning on-going, never-ending types of development; "task goals" being specific, oriented, resolvable projects). This kind of thrust is community development-oriented. The second model, "B", is planning-oriented in the technical sense, but involves mostly "task goals" or incremental development. He labels this model "social planning". Model "C" involves what Rothman calls "social action", and contains vigorous, polarized, political goals, usually of the task variety.

Nisbet[7] looks upon community development and its evolution as an outcome of political considerations, of "haves" and "have nots", of "oppressors" and "oppressed". In fact, he claims it is an essential part of democracy.

Moe[8] compares community development with such processes as economic development, and puts forth the view that it is a self-renewing, self-correcting mechanism which helps people react and adapt

to ever-changing conditions. He has developed an instrument of measurement of various components of the process, utilizing a simple coordinate system which results in four quadrants, upon which can be plotted the probable effectiveness of a particular program. He has identified fourteen dimensions which can be used to measure effectiveness.

Myrdal, Bregha and Hynam all view community development as essentially an upgrading attempt within existing political structures, a grass-roots, publically-supported movement to better the condition of lower-class or "disadvantaged" people.[9] Roberts claims that community development has to do with "conditions of social instability and change" and that "it is a process of adapting to and, as far as possible, exercising some control over such conditions".[10]

Originally, community development is seen to have been the result of British colonialism, and postulations from the "Chicago School" scholars. Over the course of some years, but evolving rapidly in the 1920's, British colonies were encouraged to take more and more part in the running of their own affairs. This resulted in the need for education and public awareness of the political and economic processes necessary to allow backward people to take over their own affairs. While much of the thrust was political, the process was carried down to the grass roots as people began to take stock of their own position.

In fact, of course, the same kinds of group-oriented, self-help processes can be seen in the earliest manifestations of civilization, and probably were present in crude form during the earliest group formation by man. Family groups, political associations, religions, labour unions, democracy, and even communism, can be viewed as evolving attempts to influence the quality of life by cooperative action through groups.

The tendency for this process seems at least as old as Man, and a good case can be made for it being present in all "social" animals who operate in or from groups.

Community development is, therefore, seen by many (Nisbet, Lotz, Moe) as merely a focussing of this tendency, and a description of its ability to achieve action or "development" in a modern setting.[11]

The so-called "Chicago School" is credited with fine-tuning the process by making the study and practice of it into a social discipline. Much of this work has been documented from the 1930's and 1940's, but no common definition of the subject is available.

Thus, Community Development seems to have developed along three lines which are interrelated but not interdependent; in no particular order: the attempt to help people in colonial countries prepare for self-government which was a pragmatic, low-key, low-cost approach to help people identify their problems and to work together towards solutions; the rural thrust in North America, as described by Biddle and Biddle and others, where the emphasis was mostly on low-profile cooperative action groups amongst people disadvantaged because of race or geography; and the Community Development movement in the urban centres, which has tended to concentrate on issues, and to be politically-oriented.

Quite obviously, Community Development encompasses a number of different situations, or at least in the past has attempted to do so. Its spectrum must be large, and painted with a broad brush. It is no wonder that so much argument has ensued as to what the subject really encompasses.

Running in parallel with the question of whether or not there is

a discrete discipline called Community Development is the controversy about the usefulness of the concept in any event. One of the largest and most expensive community development experiments was in India during the 1950's and 1960's, and there are many, such as Karunaratne, who argue forcefully that the whole thing was a failure. Similarly, Bregha in Canada has called the matter into question, and suggested that (in 1970) the skepticism he found was "both understandable and justified". Manitoba, Alberta, Ontario, and Nova Scotia all effectively cancelled community development programs during the early 1970's.[12]

This pessimism did not go unchallenged; ringing voices such as Hynam's in Canada and Moe in the United States held out great hope, based mostly on an argument that the idea needs help and government cooperation. Mayo went so far as to suggest that community development may, in fact, be achieving new life through young radicals. Lately, Roberts has described a role for CD through education and public participation in public policy evolvement.[13]

Through it all, the movement has continued in one form or another, with one profile or another, on each of the three previously mentioned levels. It would appear that, once firmly begun, the process has its own identity, which does not subside.

When it comes to precise definitions of what the process entails, opinions differ widely. Community Development has been defined so many times, from so many perspectives, and with so many shades of meaning, that it becomes impossible to gather more than a core or intuitive comprehension of what is meant. Almost every author of books or articles in the literature seems to feel obliged to offer to the world his own clean-cut, carefully phrased definition.

A review of many of these points up the fact that they seem to fall into two broad categories: either they attempt a broad summary of the general state in which their proponent wants the subject to engage, or they are issue-oriented and require major social action. In other words, they are theoretical wishful thinking or clarion calls to battle.

Contrast, for example, Dunham's pious "organized efforts to improve the conditions of community life and the capacity of the people for participation, self-direction and integrated effort in community affairs",[14] or the official Alberta definition: "Community Development is an educational-motivational process designed to create conditions favorable to economic and social change, if possible on the initiative of the community, but if this initiative is not forthcoming spontaneously, the techniques for arousing and stimulating it in order to secure the fullest participation of the community must be utilized",[15] with Lotz's idea that the process is a "planned program to meet the needs of local people, which can arise overnight",[16] or Rothman's rational "deliberatively planned, controlled change".[17]

Variously defined, Community Development seems to run the gamut from middle-class conservatism to radical social activism. Probably this is more imagined than real, for it seems mostly to be a matter of style and proportion.

What most definitions do have in common is process generation. They presuppose that Community Development is something which must be manufactured, started, nourished. It is viewed as an entity and requiring a continual input of energy from the outside.

There are some exceptions. Nisbet, for example, postulates that "not even the most powerful impacts of technology and industry

have altered the ancient loyalties of kinship, religion, and neighborhood" (the three elements of community, in his view).[18]

C. Comprehensive Planning

On the Comprehensive Town Planning side of things, the subject and practice in Alberta is most clearly shown in the process which formulates the General Municipal Plan. An estimated 150 General Plans have been done at one time or another for communities or areas since the 1950's.[19] Except for these documents (many of which have been lost), some summaries and referrals in other reports, the local literature is very limited.

In the broad sense of comprehensive planning elsewhere or in general, however, some authors have spoken out. Louis Mumford envisions the city (or any nucleated settlement) as a kind of living organism which can grow of its own accord and which is subject to illnesses of various types. These can be treated upon proper diagnosis.[20]

Chapin (1965) identified land use as the common core concern of all planners and taught, therefore, that comprehensive planning focusses on land use.[21] Comprehensive Planning can be viewed as a major design tool (Blumenfeld, 1967) and as the main tool for political decision-making. The task of the Planner is to anticipate the needs of the populace and to coordinate the means of satisfying them.[22] Altshuler (1967) sees the town planning function as a political process. The job of the Planner, according to him, is to identify, explain, and propose courses of action, not to execute them. Planning is the determination of the overall framework in which physical development takes place.[23] Goodman and Freund (1968) have given the classic definition of the comprehensive plan as being the official public document adopted

by a local government as a policy guide to decisions about the physical development of a community.[24] Others, such as Gertler and Crowley (1979) look upon comprehensive planning as a menage of people, their land use and social needs, and the creating of potential solutions as modified by existing economics and politics.[25]

Recently, social concerns have been framed as part of the Plan itself, rather than as merely a consequence. In fact, the author and others have elsewhere suggested that not only is Comprehensive Planning an on-going process, but that it is made up of four elements: the relationships of the needs of people, with the use of land, as modified by the demands of economics and the pressures of politics.[26]

Community Development is, therefore, seen usually as a people-oriented on-again, off-again process which involves the marketplace, politics, and the physical environment. Comprehensive Planning, on the other hand, involves the same elements, but in the reverse order.

It seems possible to mesh these two through the medium of complimentary paradigms in such a way as both can be enhanced. Further, this might give insight into how both can be integrated into other social science disciplines and practices.

D. Existing Models

This study will approach the processes of both Community Development and Comprehensive Planning through the construction of explanatory models. This will be done by following the precepts of Lippitt (1973) who set out guidelines. For goal-oriented social change models, he found that most tend to show similar characteristics.[27] Systems which feature goal-seeking behavior are predominant and the goal towards which the system is directed by its behavior is sometimes influenced by that

behavior. Some forces, external or internal are present and depicted in the model which will direct the system towards its goal. A representation of that goal is found in the external and internal forces. Often, some disturbing forces also exist which are hindering the system from attaining its goal. A connection between the goal and the resource forces of the system is present or at least implied.

Models are useful because they allow a complex matter to be reduced to its essentials, and studied. As Lippitt points out, "the true value of a model lies in the fact that it is an abstraction of reality that can be useful for analytical purposes".[28]

Models are symbolic. They represent in a way that others can understand. Lippitt has identified five basic types: the Graphic type which can be two or three dimensional; the Pictorial which is an illustration of real-life situation(s); the Schematic which is often a representation of an actual situation; the Mathematic which deals with abstract, quantifiable codes and formulae; and the Simulatic, which is a three-dimensional simulation of a real-life situation.

Models are effective because they communicate not only basic information, but secondary or interpretive logic which can be built upon and from which can be drawn inferences and new ideas. They transcend the semantics of language and are, therefore, more universal in application. Models also challenge the learner. Being a uniquely human invention using symbolic communication, the intelligence and understanding of the person perceiving the model is a direct and objective manifestation of the implications, in his mind, of what he sees.

Another classification of models recognizes only three types: Iconic (visual); Analogue (representational); and Symbolic (mathemat-

ical).[29]

In this study, attention will be focussed on the Iconic, and more specifically, the Graphic types. This is because the realities we will eventually seek to represent are parts of a process and not an instantaneous manifestation. The flow of the process and thus the interrelationships of the parts are best show diagramatically.

Since this study is also an attempt to categorize the dynamics of social change, it is instructive to review of models of some others who have tackled this problem.

A number of Community Development and social change models exist, and a recent one by Dosher (1979) is particularly interesting because it attempts to construct a paradigm in a wholistic way, as this study also tries to do.[30] This model is shown in Fig. 1. Three columns appear side by side. The left is labelled "disciplines", the middle "professional", and the right "structures".

In the "disciplines" column are listed the various fields of study that Community Development often embraces, such as political science, economics, information sciences, administrative sciences, sociology and psychology. In the "professional" column we find planners, bureaucrats, politicians, economists, community-organizer-developers, organization development practicioners, clinical social workers and psychologists. Each of these entries is tabbed with one or more numbers which represent the scale of the structures within which they work. In the "structures" column are listed eight types, varying in scale from "personal" to "cosmos".

Along the bottom of the model, beneath the columns, is a space representing "movement" through time, space, history and culture.

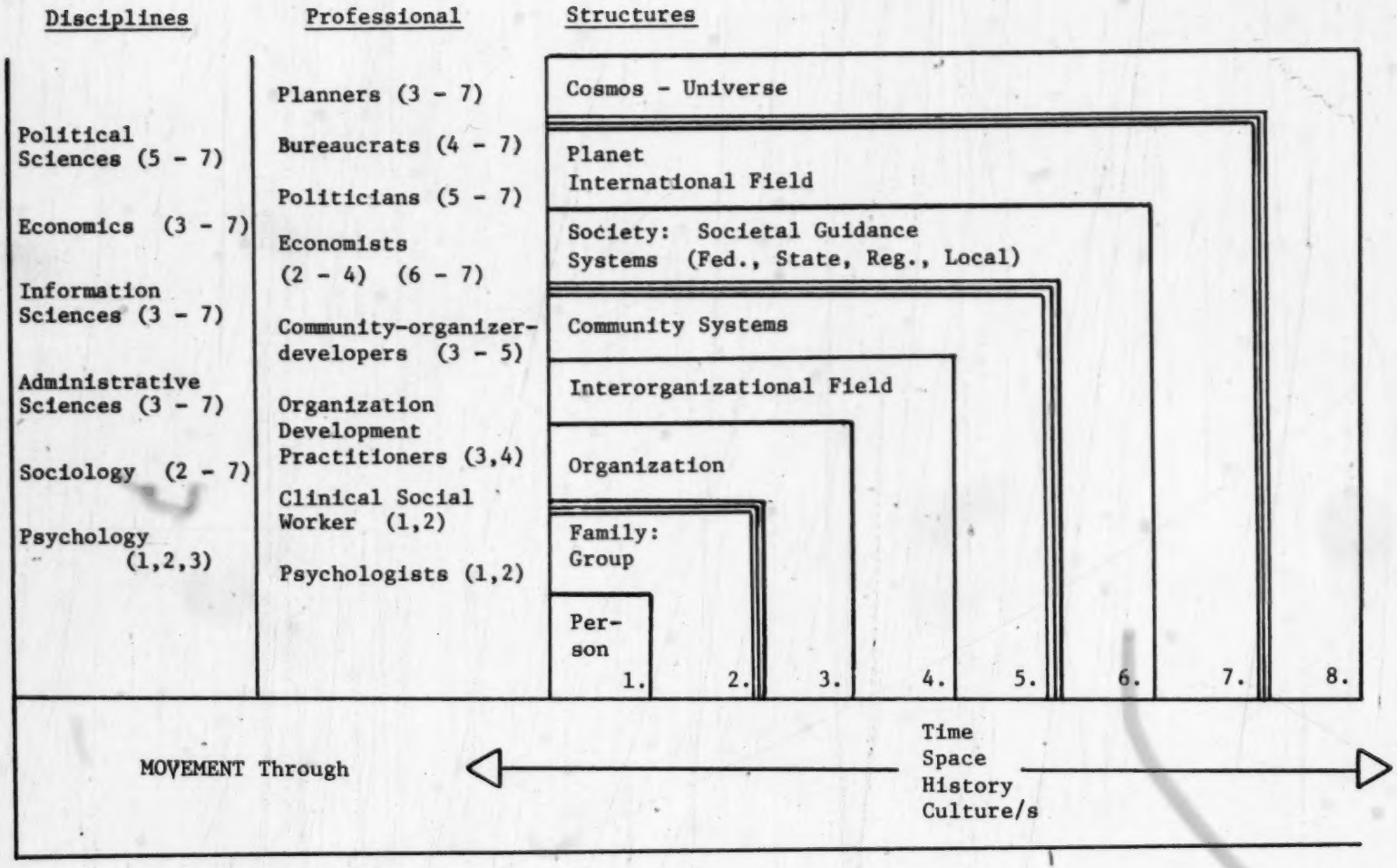

Fig. 1 Dosher's Model of Community Development

Lines separating the structures list are so arranged as to appear as a scale along the time, space etc. continuum at the bottom.

A similar model for Community Development has been developed by Moe, and is depicted in Fig. 2.[31] Moe was concerned in helping to establish a method whereby programmes might be made more effective, and specifically with ways and means of trying to establish before the fact whether or not the particular programme was liable to be worth the attempt. While not actually a quantitative model, his diagram has the advantage of allowing some judgement to be made before, during and after change attempts.

The model itself consists of a set of two lines, one horizontal, the other vertical, which meet in the middle of the diagram as an axis. Thus are formed four "segments" in which can be plotted certain possibilities. In the standard model, the perpendicular axis represents Autonomy (high at the top, low at the bottom), while the horizontal one represents Development (high at the left, low at the right).

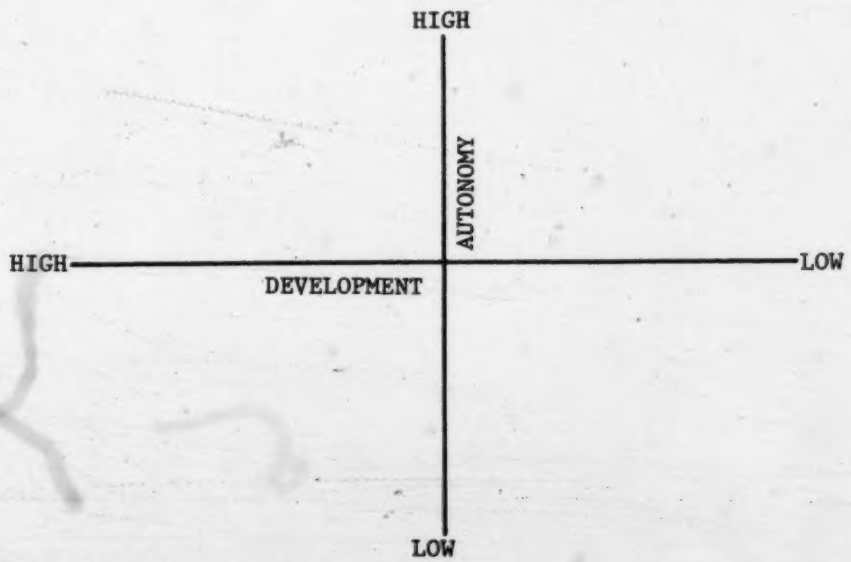

Fig. 2 Moe's Dimension Chart

Using this model it is possible to plot Community Development activities and thrusts based upon the idea of "dimensions". Moe plays off two functional aspects--freedom and achievement--and his thesis is that it is not always possible to achieve autonomy (freedom) and full achievement (development). One or the other is usually sacrificed in most schemes. Thus, you can usually find a particular scheme plotted in a position in any of the four segments, which represent mixes of autonomy and development. The best segment, of course, is the upper left one, which represents high autonomy and development. Conversely, the least desirable is the lower right, with its low autonomy and development.

Comprehensive Planning has also been represented in models. Of particular significance to this study are ones which have been developed for Alberta situations, and particularly for the General Municipal Plan, which is used in this study to represent the whole concept of Comprehensive Planning, because it is the most usual and familiar. Fig. 3 shows a process for the General Municipal Plan development process, actually used in 1979 for the construction of a Plan for the Town of Whitecourt, which is northwest of Edmonton.[32]

The model takes the form of a flow line moving through time in three distinct dimensions as identified by the Planners on the project. These three involve levels of activity and are the "technical" (called Research and Analysis), and two formulation levels, "Policy" and "Plan". The process is here of sixteen consecutive steps.

An Advisory Committee, composed of local businessmen and citizens, is formed, as well as a type of Technical Committee comprised of governmental people and technical specialists.

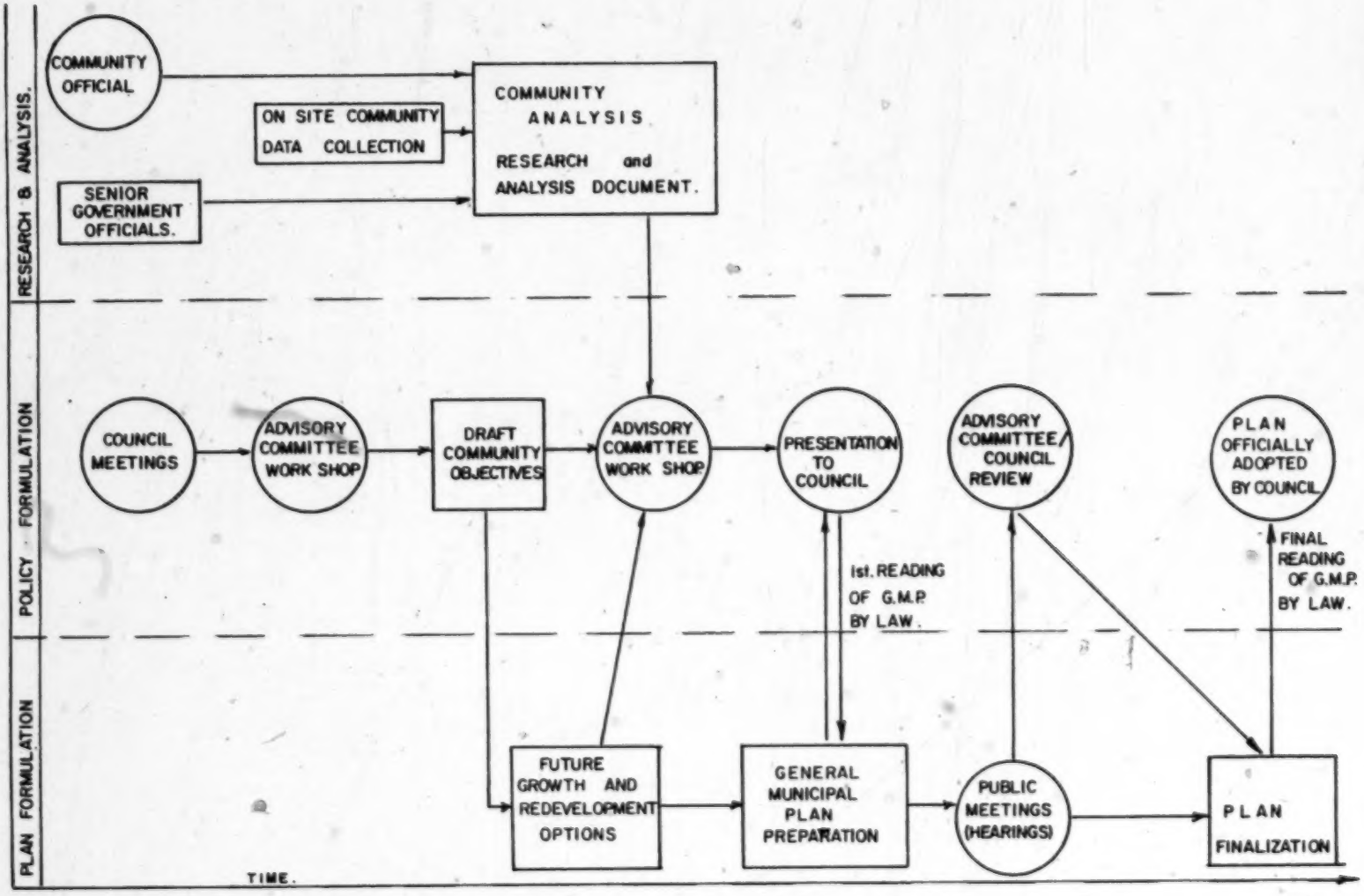

Fig. 3 S.A.E.L. MODEL FOR GENERAL MUNICIPAL PLAN PREPARATION

On the technical level, senior government people and community officials combine with the Planners to analyze the community itself. The document thus produced is fed into the Advisory Committee during a day-long workshop session, and the process moves into the Policy Formulation level, which started with a Council meeting to formally begin the Plan and to appoint the Planners (who, in this case, are outsiders). The Committee meets with the Planners to discuss the community data thus far obtained. The consultants then work up a set of draft community objectives, which are processed two ways: through the Advisory Committee workshop, and into the Plan Formulation level where the Planners can begin work on the future growth and redevelopment options.

The Advisory Committee, in this model, decides upon certain recommendations about the future growth and redevelopment of the Town as determined by the technical analysis, by public participation through questionnaires and by discussion at the meeting. At this stage, the focus shifts mostly to the Plan Formulation level, in which, after official first reading of the enabling bylaw by Town Council, a Draft Plan can be drawn up. Public hearings are then held, and a thorough review by the Advisory Committee, the Town Council and the Consultants. Final Plan work-up is then commenced, and this is sent to Council for second and third readings, which establishes the Plan by Bylaw.

The model shown is as it was presented to Whitecourt by the Consultants before the project was begun (even before it was awarded). The final process did now, however, differ substantially from this format, although the time segments shown for various stages were not particularly accurate. The diagram omits a monitoring process as well.

E. Summary

Models are an effective way of visually interpreting the basic components of complicated processes. In the field of social action and social planning, the paradigms can be used to investigate and analyze the building tools and blocks which make up the dynamics of group action.

Models by Dosher and Moe are good examples of Community Development representations, and can be used for further work in this study. One provides a general, "universal" view of the whole subject of Community Development as an applied art, which is useful because the entire field can be viewed at a glance. The other, Moe, tries to provide a type of qualitative measurement by which programmes planned or underway can be judged. Neither of these models is meant to convey more than simplistic generalities, but each is a valuable contribution to the thrust of this present study.

A model developed for the construction of a General Municipal Plan of the Town of Whitecourt recently is a useful backdrop for the discussions of Comprehensive Planning as it is familiar in Alberta. It is essentially a flow diagram through time with three levels of activity for the process to develop and unfold.

Community Development and Comprehensive Planning both have extensive literatures, which have been quickly reviewed.

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1. W. J. and L. J. Biddle, The Community Development Process: The Re-discovery of Local Initiative (New York: Holt, Winston & Rinehart, 1965); E. Moe, "Dimensions of Development with Particular Reference to Community Development", a paper presented to the International Conference on CD, 1971; J. Bregha, "Community Development in Canada: Problems and Strategies", Community Development Journal (5-1, 1973); C.A.S. Hynam, "A Unique Challenge for Community Development: The Alberta Experience", Community Development Journal (8-1, 1973); R. Nisbet, "The Quest for Community", Dialogue (6-4, 1973); G. Karunaratne, "The Failure of the CD Programme in India", Community Development Journal (2-2, 1976); D. Goulet, A New Moral Order (Orbis, 1977); J. Lotz, Understanding Canada (Toronto: N. C. Press, 1977); H. Roberts, Community Development: Learning and Action (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1979).

2. Compact Dictionary of Canadian English, edited by T. M. Paikeday (Toronto: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1977), p. 550.

3. J. Lotz, ibid., pp. 8 and 9.

4. W. J. and L. J. Biddle, ibid.

5. A. Dunham, "The Nature and Characteristics of CD", being Ch. 12, The New Community Organization (New York: T. Y. Carroll, 1970).

6. J. Rothman, "Three Models of Community Organization Practice", Social Work Practice (Columbia University, 1968).

7. R. Nisbet, The Quest for Community (Oxford, 1970 edition).

8. E. Moe, see also his model as discussed in Chapter II, p. 21 of this study.

9. G. Myrdal, Beyond the Welfare State (New York: Bantam Books, 1967); J. Bregha, ibid.; C.A.S. Hynam, ibid.

10. H. Roberts, ibid. Introduction, p. 5.

11. A. Nisbet, ibid., J. Lotz, ibid., and E. Moe, ibid., are all North American writers speaking about primarily North American conditions, but their ideas can appeal more widely.

12. G. Karunaratne, ibid., p. 95.
    See also S. N. Bhattacharyya, Community Development - An Analysis of the Programme in India (Calcutta: Academic Publisher, 1970).
    J. Bregha, ibid., p. 79.
    Manitoba reputedly had the first major CD programme in Canada, under Jean Lesage, beginning in 1960. Jim Lotz, ibid., relates succinctly what happened. He also deals with the efforts in Nova Scotia which, although derived from earlier roots (the

Antigonish Movement) was never as broadly applied. The Alberta story is recounted by C.A.S. Hynam, ibid., and others.

13. C.A.S. Hynam, ibid., E. Moe, ibid., and H. Roberts, ibid., all profess optimism about the applicability and viability of CD in modern conditions, although each tends to qualify himself. Thus Hynam is an apologist for public programme failures and maintains that CD can be viable with more empathetic government support. Moe tends to base his optimism on change agents who can better read the needs and possibilities for action from groups, and Roberts admits to CD "marginality" unless the process is one of education and communicative networks as well.

14. A. Dunham, "The Nature and Characteristics of CD", being Ch. 12 of The New Community Organization (New York: T. Y. Carroll Co., 1970), p. 171.

15. Quoted by C.A.S. Hynam, ibid., p. 39.

16. J. Lotz, ibid.

17. J. Rothman, ibid., p. 22.
This view permeates the literature, and it seems to matter little which book or CD magazine is scrutinized. It is true that often groups must be formed in order to accomplish a particular purpose. But groups can be spatial or exist through a communications network, and may already exist in form or strength sufficient to tackle a given project. Regardless, the concept of applied intervention has been a mainstream theme of CD writings for many years.

18. R. Nisbet, ibid., in Dialogue, p. 21. He qualifies his view by stating that "the sheer power of the political order" may overcome this bond.

19. An estimate made by Roy R. Erickson, Director, Planning Services Branch, Alberta Department of Municipal Affairs. The estimate was given verbally to the author during an interview arranged to discuss the compilation of material for a University of Alberta Extension course entitled "The General Plan in Alberta". The date of the interview was middle September, 1978.

20. L. Mumford, The City in History (London: Harcourt, Brace, 1961).

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22. H. Blumenfeld, The Modern Metropolis (Cambridge: The Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press, 1967). This is a major theme of this book rather than an actual quote. The book is a collection of essays by Blumenfeld and regarded as a classic in its field.

23. A. A. Altshuler, The City Planning Process (Ithaca and London: Cornell University Press, 1965).

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25. L. Gertler and R. Crowley, Changing Canadian Cities (Toronto: McLelland and Stewart, 1977).

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27. Gordon Lippitt, Visualizing Change (Fairfax, Virginia: NTL Learning Resources Corp., 1973).

28. Gordon Lippitt, ibid., p. 2.

29. Gordon Lippitt, ibid., p. 3.

30. Eileen Dosher, an unpublished report in support of her application for a Ph.D., Union Graduate School, 1979, as amended and slightly modified by Hayden Roberts, The University of Alberta, 1980.

31. Edward Moe, ibid.

32. Stanley Associates Engineering Ltd., Planning Department, Proposal for a General Municipal Plan, Town of Whitecourt, 1978.

CHAPTER III

AN ANALYSIS OF COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT: THE TWO DIMENSIONS

A. Definitions

No universally accepted definition of Community Development exists and, therefore, no standard model. This has not been for lack of trying: most authors and agencies involved in the subject have attempted a version, but broad agreement on details has been slow in coming. Nevertheless, there is substantial agreement in the literature about the main or "core" elements. Most observers would, for example, agree that CD involves groups striving for some satisfaction of felt need, and that this striving represents a describable process which evolves or unfolds during the course of time.[1]

Community Development, as a social action process, seems to cover such a large spectrum of situations, groups and techniques that it becomes a rather amorphous, sometimes ambiguous, subject of study to the point where some have claimed it cannot be studied as a whole at all: that it is the product of the interaction of other forces and fields, and is, therefore, an outcome rather than a process.[2]

In order to clarify the situation for the purposes of this study, let us break the concept down into its own constituent parts and derive therefrom our own definition. From there we can discuss its implications and build a model to fit.

"Community" in the context of this study means the tendency of people to form groups which express commonality of interest. These need not all require overt membership: indeed, some of those ultimately having the most meaning are the result of the accident of location, because they express merely the presence of human beings in a geographic area. Thus, people living in a certain district within a city or county form a "community", whether they want to or not. Similarly, other commonalities impose other types of groupings: workplaces, for example, or age, or sex or religion, or even hobbies.

"Development" is taken to express the group desire for perceived betterment: to achieve a felt need. Thus, groups of all types have a tendency to use collective action or agitation to secure some sort of change in the status quo deemed desirable by at least some of the members of the group. The felt needs may range from a "better" internal structure to the redistribution of external power, or the redressment of a perceived wrong or disadvantage. Essentially, these are exercises in problem solving, by attempts to change conditions either inside or outside the group.

Taken together, the words "Community Development" form a phrase that describes a social phenomenon concerned with group action to attempt social change.

There seem to be two aspects of Community Development fundamental to this study: one is the subject or field of Community Development, the other is the practice or application of enhancement techniques. The first implies a phenomenon, a potential for social action; the second a catylized process through time and a specialized approach.

B. Dynamics of Change

Community Development is based on group dynamics. Its basic characteristic is change: a group propensity not to remain static. It is the result of group restlessness.

Change is defined by Warner, Morse and Cooney (1969) as "an alteration of an existing field of forces".[3] This is based on the observation of many researchers that any given system, be it physical, social or conceptual, undergoes change as soon as it loses equilibrium. Inherent in this idea is also the fact that a system must actively try to re-establish equilibrium if it is to continue to exist as an entity. Change can, therefore, also be thought of as energy expended in an attempt to achieve equilibrium.

Any change involves time. It cannot be instantaneous as a whole--it is spread out. It is in itself a process.

In the physical world the attempt to gain equilibrium is the force we call "energy"--heat when it flows from a warmer to cooler body, gravity when it attempts to achieve centrality, electromagnetic radiation when it is produced as a result of the movement of atomic particles from one equilibrium state to another, and chemical reaction when atoms and molecules re-arrange themselve to re-establish a disturbed equilibrium.

It might seem that without equilibrium, bodies could not stay together. The fact is, however, that most physical entities are doomed by their very size or nature to change over the course of time. The human body is always in a state of evolution--its equilibrium is fragile and constantly shifting. Even the largest stars are doomed to shrink into white dwarfs, neutron stars or perhaps even black holes. Stable

as most physical bodies seem to be, change is constantly occurring within them.

The question is whether or not equilibrium can exist over relatively long periods of time. In other words, which is most usual--and, therefore, most natural--energy balance or energy flow; equilibrium or change?

In the physical world, the answer is clear. The very existence of energy is clear proof that imbalance is--at least in this epoch of the universe--the natural order of things. When and if equilibrium is achieved on the macro level, the physical universe would be in a state of entropy--of zero energy potential. On the micro level, it is perfectly possible for small bodies to achieve temporary equilibrium both internally and externally, but even this state has a high potential for disruption and, therefore, change. The very gas that makes up the basic building material of the universe and its galaxies is in slow but effective motion, and is thus subject to influence, and eventual disruption through gravitational attraction.

The principle of equilibrium, or balance, is not as mathematically obvious in the social sphere, but it obtains nevertheless. As Lippitt (1973) puts it, "Man's problems, both large and small, have always been problems of equilibrium." If balance is achieved just long enough, the problems are set aside as solved.[4]

Equilibrium occurs when all the needs of a group, society or individual are satisfied. In other words, if there is no desire for something even slightly different, there is no motivation for change. And without motivation there is no energy for change. But all it takes is a difference of opinion, or a new perceived problem to arise, and the

equilibrium of the group is destroyed.

On the macro level, change is as inevitable in a social system as it is in a physical one, because of the impossibility of keeping myriads of movements, thoughts and aspirations in a constant state of rest. On the micro level, the equilibrium state is conceivable, but it will be transitory in most cases. No matter how large or small the social system--an individual or a society--the very day-to-day, second-to-second experiences of life mitigate against total rest. No two people can so completely agree on every single point that no potential for debate, for overt action exists.

Social systems have energy for the same reasons that physical systems do: because it is created out of conflict, or the lack of equilibrium. And as long as equilibrium does not exist, change must be taking place. The functional difference is time. It is true to say that even in a state of equilibrium the potential for change is high. Precise status quo is not natural and, therfore, improbable, if not impossible.

If the basic change we have spoken of were the only force, it might expend itself mostly in random movements adding up to little or no actual evolution of the group. But the seeking of equilibrium (or of a <u>new</u> equilibrium) is a facet of the general group will as well as of the individuals who make up the group. It is when this group, seeking for a new and perceivably better state of affairs, is powered by a cooperative or coercive thrust from the natural basic energies of change, that progress--social change--can occur.

"Social change" has been defined by Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) as "the process by which alteration occurs in the structure and function

of a social system."[5]

This becomes overwhelming to the system when a significant proportion of the elements of the system are motivated in one direction. Groups of any size are not any more naturally homophilous, than in equilibrium (in fact, if they were one they would in all probability be the other). This means that most of the group energy is dissipated within the group itself. Lippitt et al (1958) in a classic study, enumerated five reasons why this energy may not be mobilized without overt management: group maintenance, internal conflict, lack of motivation, lack of information about problems and alternatives, and communication difficulties. They coined the term "effective synergy" to describe the residue of energy available to help the group in its control or direct its change.[6]

Ironically, there also exists within social systems a resistance to change. This is also true of physical systems. In the former it takes the form of cultural patterns and traditions, plus inherent conservatism, an attitude of cautiousness; in the latter, it is manifested by electrical and nuclear forces which regulate and suppress movement. In both cases, the natural way seems in place to prevent anarchy--the complete disintegration of the system.

Nevertheless, the forces of evolution--of change--are stronger yet, because they have the powerful ally of time.

It is established, therefore, that change is natural, and to be expected on the macro level. At least the potential for change is natural and to be expected on the micro level. Because change takes place over time, it takes the form not of an instantaneous or discrete unit, but of a process.

C. Perpetual Community Development

This elemental, often informal process makes up a phenomenon that can be called "Perpetual Community Development", or "PCD". It requires no artificial intervention from outside the group.[7] It may be quite sophisticated because of an efficient, knowledgeable hierarchy or other organization within the group itself. In that case, Perpetual Community Development can be an effective agent for social change. Most governments, political parties, clubs and groups that were organized by the members themselves are highly motivated--at least part of the time--and tend to be willing and able to address their own goals. These goals may be internally or externally oriented. In most cases, the first focus is within the group.

But not all groups possess internal motivation. Many lack leadership or structure or both. Often, this chaotic condition occurs in those groups which in fact exist in an unorganized state. The people often do not appreciate their membership in a common group, and a major element of group dynamics is apathy. Here, even the effective synergy of the group is low: there is no focus and little agreement on felt need. Potential is high, but performance is low, indeed.[8]

Thus we have two kinds of groups: the "purposive" group which is typically highly structured and whose commonality is overtly expressed, and who have a relatively clearly defined purpose for existence, and the "happenstance" group, which exists because it is a conglomeration of people who happen to be in the vicinity. The first is a mostly artificial association, the latter a casual, natural one. Examples of the first are clubs and unions; of the second, an urban neighborhood. This description represents the poles of the situation: in the field there exist

groups in between. All have potential for Perpetual Community Development.

Perpetual Community Development, however it occurs, has two basic characteristics. The first is "periodicity", the second "perpetuity". These may perhaps be thought of as two sides of the same coin, for they seem to be intrinsic in the character of the natural phenomenon.

"Periodicity", in this study, refers to the fact that the observed thrust and change is not always of the same magnitude. It may be zero during periods of group equilibrium, and therefore pure potential, or low during periods of discord. It can be likened to a plant which, taken wholistically, is not always in flower: indeed, it may not always even be in a growth state, but rather resting as a seed or as a body ready to resume its metabolism when conditions are appropriate.

It is probable that periodicity occurs in Perpetual Community Development because of social conditions outside the group and their interrelationship with motivation, structure and group dynamics within. Whatever the cause, a number of writers have commented on the fact that groups can be more effective in their social change objectives when conditions seem "ripe" for change. The relative juxtaposition of the group vis-a-vis equilibrium may also be an important factor.

"Perpetuity" is a recognition of the natural fundamental fact of group activity. Groups have always existed, and, therefore, so has the tendency to group action which we have termed Perpetual Community Development. It is ongoing. It will last as long as the group lasts. It may even become the main reason for its existence and so serve

as a prolongation agent. On the macro level, Perpetual Community Development will always exist as long as groups exist.[9]

It is now possible to construct a model of Perpetual Community Development which can represent the characteristics as discussed above. This is shown in Fig. 4.

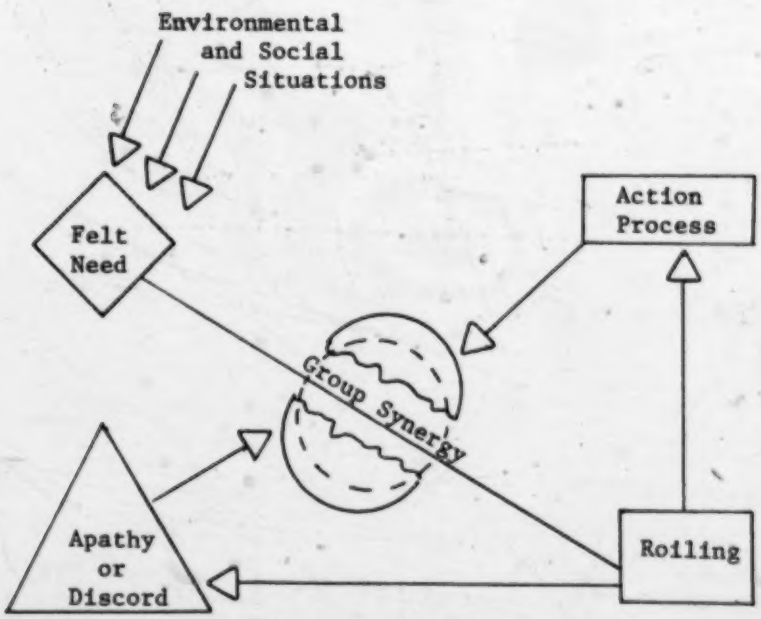

Fig. 4 Internal Dynamics of Perpetual Community Development

Here, slanted lines at the top represent the multitude of environmental and/or social situations which pose potential problems to the group. We must now suppose that one of these impinges on the consciousness of the group, and becomes a felt need (represented by the diamond

upper left). The energy latent in the group is aroused. This energy, termed "synergy", then destroys the equilibrium of the group (if it, in fact, existed beforehand) and results in a roiling process, indicated by the square to the lower right. Out of this process comes either discord (shown as the triangle to the lower left) or a planning and action process, shown as the rectangle upper right.

If most of the synergy is dispersed in disagreements and discord, eventually a condition of apathy will set in, which, because it takes little or no synergy, is in a sense analogous to equilibrium and, therefore, the arrow moves from the triangle at lower left back to the centre of the diagram, which represents equilibrium if and when it exists.

That synergy which emerges from the roiling process and proceeds to effect an action is called "effective synergy". The action itself will be interior to the group, at least at first. It may or may not appear externally to produce a thrust for actual social change. Whether it does so or not will depend upon the group perception of strategy: whether it is better to change internally and thus provide a better defence, or to take the offence and try to change exterior conditions. This decision is made by the group, and in the sense that it does not require artificial stimulation or management, it is a natural thrust whose potential for existence is constant.

This model can account for the mechanics within the group. Fig. 5 shows the natural process by which change is attempted.

Here, the paradigm takes the form of a graph whose horizontal axis represents the flow of time and the vertical the motivation of the group, expressed as effective synergy. The plot line becomes a

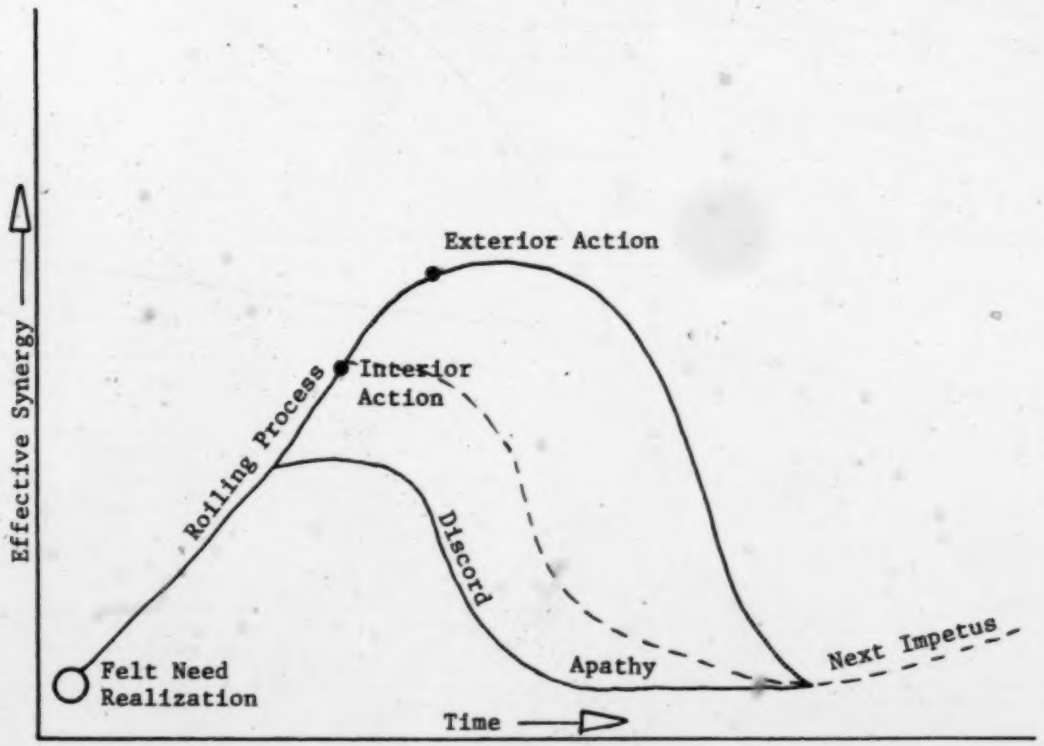

Fig. 5 Perpetual Community Development Process

recurring sine curve, whose base is represented by low motivation. The realization of felt need is a natural fertilization process from the continual bombardment of social and environmental pressures. This breaks the apathy or equilibrium of the group and moves the plot up to the roiling process.[10] Effective synergy carries the plot still higher to another interior action stage, and higher still if exterior action is necessary. The rest of the synergy is dissipated in discord and eventual apathy. As time goes by, however, the effective synergy is also dissipated and the plot line returns to base level. This is the "periodicity" discussed earlier.

D. Enhanced Community Development

Basically, Community Development as a subject of study is a naturally-occurring phenomenon that is always present because it is a basic property of group dynamics. As has already been pointed out in Part B of this Chapter, sometimes this natural occurrence is quite effective and is only spontaneous as seen from the outside. It is, in fact, independent of, but reactive to, external pressures.

The practice of Community Development is something different: it is the art of helping the natural tendencies of CD from the outside. This we shall term "Enhanced Community Development" and describe in this section. We will also refer to it as ECD.

Enhanced Community Development is interventionist. It requires an outside practitioner to infiltrate the group, either by invitation or by initiative. It is usually concerned with techniques to increase effective synergy and thus improve action programmes. Although foreign to the group, the technique implies close empathy on the part of the intervenor with group practices, ideals and aspirations.

Although artificial, the implanted process is usually more one that seeks to focus and magnify, manage and mobilize felt need rather than impose new or ascribed needs upon the group.

There is one special case where felt need exists before a cohesive group, and in this case the practitioner must actually organize, initiate and solidify before moving forward into the actual CD process.

Thus, Enhanced Community Development is the practice of a discipline, overtly or covertly, but as a specific, conscious act. It is essentially an art based upon attempts to gain progress towards the perceived greater good of the group.

It is important to note the words "attempt" and "perceived" because it is not essential to the concept that a greater good is, in fact, achieved, nor that the greater good is really thought out and referred to as a formal goal. The whole process, as the Biddles have pointed out (1966), can quite often be an informal one.[11] Perhaps, as Freire insists (1968), the concept of "praxis" can be regarded as the ultimate test of effectiveness, although others would argue that the practical usefulness of the procedures may manifest themselves in numerous, invisible ways, but be worthwhile nonetheless.[12]

The application of the practice of Community Development implies an understanding of the structure of groups, and the dynamics which power them. Many of the characteristics first studied in individual human beings also belong to groups: motivation, behavior, curiosity, memory and learning are examples.[13] In some groups, these characteristics have become stylized over time, and are difficult to overcome. It is as if a system had become petrified and frozen into certain set patterns of behavior. The motivations which power the group existence may not be the same as the originals, and the resultant behavior patterns can thus be less effective or downright meaningless. Curiosity on a group level can be stifled, memory biased and learning atrophied. Often the power network of authority is unchallenged but obsolescent, or worse.[14]

The flow of time is not necessarily conducive to radical change within a group. In fact, something of the reverse may take place: the passage of time may serve to wrap the actions or behavior of the group ever tighter around itself, strangling initiative and effective synergy. Change is still taking place, of course, but it is not always towards a

freer, more elastic group or social restructure.

Thus, a very important function of the practice of ECD is to apply techniques which will help groups dissolve unnecessary impediment bonds, behavior or hierarchies, and to formulate new or renovated groups that can better come to grips with situations in today's fast-changing, complex and insecure society. This is particularly important in groups traditionalized by internal authority.

As Lippitt, Watson and Westley observed many years ago (1958), "many group dynamics techniques aim at redistributing power in the group so that it can be guided by the will of its members instead of by tradition or a few people."[15] As Saul Alinsky put it, groups should be free to "mobilize the zeal for betterment".[16]

The basic necessity for ECD activity is either the presence of groups or the potential for group formation. By and large, however, the kinds of groups and situations with which CD practitioners conduct their business are already in place. This has to do with the three types of "change agents" often recognized, as distinguished by the scale of their "clients".[17] Thus, typical <u>personal</u> change agents can be identified as psychiatrists, psychoanalysts and personal therapy specialists. These help individuals solve personal problems on a face-to-face, person-to-person level. Often the objective is to help people cope--that is, to change within rather than to change the circumstances or surroundings, although both these may be parts of the therapy. <u>Group</u> change agents such as psychologists, social workers and operational development personnel, tend to work with small- to medium-sized groups generally extant together in one place (although not necessarily so) and who have perceived particular problems and have either come together

for that reason (such as workplace people), or who are conveniently lumped together in a demographic definition (such as social welfare recipients). Often, the sought change is external to the group itself.

Community Development practicioners, while they may have input and liason with other change agents and their groups, deal mostly with larger, amorphous groups, often on a geographic level. They exist either by virtue of the area in which they are found, or by communication networks. These groups are usually the least structured and least motivated, but the most likely to be present at all times.

The dynamics are complicated. Apathy and fragmentation impede growth and action. These disfunctions originate in past failures, factionalism and a loss of self-confidence. The CD practicioner must evolve methods to overcome the apathy, to neutralize or turn to positive advantage the factionalism, and to restore confidence in the group's power to effect change.

The Change Agent, in other words, must understand group dynamics and motivation. Lippitt has described four different motivational reasons for group restlessness: dissatisfaction with the present situation; a perceived discrepency between what is and what might be; external pressures such as peer group expectations and societal mores; and internal requiredness, which is a powerful force in individuals, but which can also surface in groups in the form of attempts to justify their existence.[18] These four can, in a certain sense, be seen as the manifestation of a group as a single entity: an individual. Indeed, it would seem that a group can react as an individual might.

Change can thus be external or internal, planned or evolutionary. It can be expansive and positive or restricted and negative.

The job of Enhanced Community Development is to create the necessary motivation for positive, expansive change, often within the group itself, but sometimes exterior to it.

A number of techniques exist, ranging from Biddle's concept of passive management in geographical situations to Alinsky's overt manipulation.[19] Rothman's categorization of social change into three basic types is thus seen in this sense as three different intensity scales of Community Development, with different motivation factors.

Most of the approaches have many points in common, and it can perhaps be argued that commonality is what makes up the "core" of the discipline many call Community Development. A survey conducted for this study indicates that at least eight characteristics can be held as common facets of most Enhanced Community Development techniques.

The first is the reliance on group propensity for change. A second is the proposition that most techniques are really problem-solving excercises meant to encourage a group to come to grips with some real-world situation. Thirdly, all techniques recognize the importance of proper motivation.

A fourth characteristic common to most techniques is the attempt to establish a communications network in the group and around it. A fifth is often the re-alignment or at least the exploration of the decision-making devices and heirarchies of the group. Sixthly, most insist on an information/education base as a prerequisite to action. A seventh is the construction of a purpose and a subsequent set of objectives for the group. Finally, an eighth common practice is the attempt to unfreeze, change and re-freeze a situation, based on some studies and writings of Kurt Lewin.

applied action. Except for the eighth, each provides a positive, overt step in the process; all are natural to group activity.

The process itself varies, depending upon the group, its size, the pertaining circumstances and the people involved. Generally, however, whether it is planned (directed) or imminent (internal), there are some basic overt phases that have been identified by Lippitt:[20]

1. A need for help is discovered, either by the group or by an outsider.
2. The various components of the group are made aware of the need, through a sub-process of information or education dissemination.
3. A series of meetings or discussions leading to a "helpful relationship" within the group and between it and the Community Developer are held.
4. The change problem, through a process of roiling, is identified and clarified. This is the intra-group information and opinion-gathering stage.
5. Goals are established and then objectives (sub-process II).
6. Alternatives for and of change are examined, and a programme of action prepared. This is the extra-group information-gathering and analysis stage (sub-process III).
7. Change efforts in the "reality situation" are attempted (sub-process IV).
8. Change is generalized and stabilized.
9. Helping relationship ends, and a "continuing relationship" often begins.
10. Monitoring and updating begins (sub-process V).

Thus, in the general process, five sub-processes, each in itself a relatively complete action program, occur. The general process ends with the fifth sub-process, which in effect is a re-evaluation of the change. This can result in modifications and re-change, a process commonly called "follow-through". This puts the general process back to phase II, where it can begin again. Once begun, the whole process is thus cyclical in nature. The natural tendency is for change impetus repetitively to occur, but not necessarily for the same change impetus each time.

Most often, ECD is issue-oriented. It is a situational happening that at least partially unites the group, or at least makes it possible to unite.

The Community Development agent must be sensitive to the situation. He must understand not only the group, the situation, the process and the techniques, but the timing. The process itself needs time to breathe--to monitor, to recover. Starting up something else during a "down" period might take a far greater input of outside energy than at some other time when conditions seem more "ripe" for change action.

If the role of the CD agent is to facilitate change, he must not only provide motivation and outside information, but he must so adjust the motivation that the "ripeness" or likelihood of change action occurring is enhanced. This requires an intimate knowledge not only of the group and its circumstances, its attitudes and its structure, but also its history, its behavior and its success rate of past change. This will serve as an indicator of the chances for group action at present, and for what areas of change seem most likely to appeal, what areas of change seem most amenable to accomplishment, and how to motivate

certain parts of the group to initiate those changes.

It would then follow that initiation is not as crucial as management. The probability exists that, given the nature of change and its inevitability, there are many subcurrents swirling in even the most apathetic or disunited of groups. The technique of focussing this behavior into a recognizable thrust, once a decision on when to intervene and upon what to concentrate made, is the key to successful Enhanced Community Development.

The process waits for no one. It produces spot action which may last for a long time or fade quickly before a complete process is completed. The successful Community Development practitioner will climb aboard the wagon whenever he can, or as he judges best. Often his job will be to focus concern. But it may also be to prolong the process: to complete the cycle and, thus, produce a conclusion.

The Community Development practitioner should, therefore, be carefully trained in three aspects: as knowledgeable manager of an already-existing phenomenon, as a coordinator of people, and expert in group dynamics, and as a coordinator of projects and of information; he or she must be able to manage complexity, even in the face of uncertainty. Much of this complexity comes from man's increasing awareness of his natural and cultural environment; the store of basic and applied knowledge is increasing at an enormous rate. The management, diffraction, interpretation, and dissemination of information is, therefore, a key job of the practitioner as a focussing mechanism for the primeval surge.

Fig. 6 shows a model for Enhanced Community Development, exhibiting the stages and characteristics discussed above.

Down the lefthand side are listed 10 steps, modified from Lippitt.

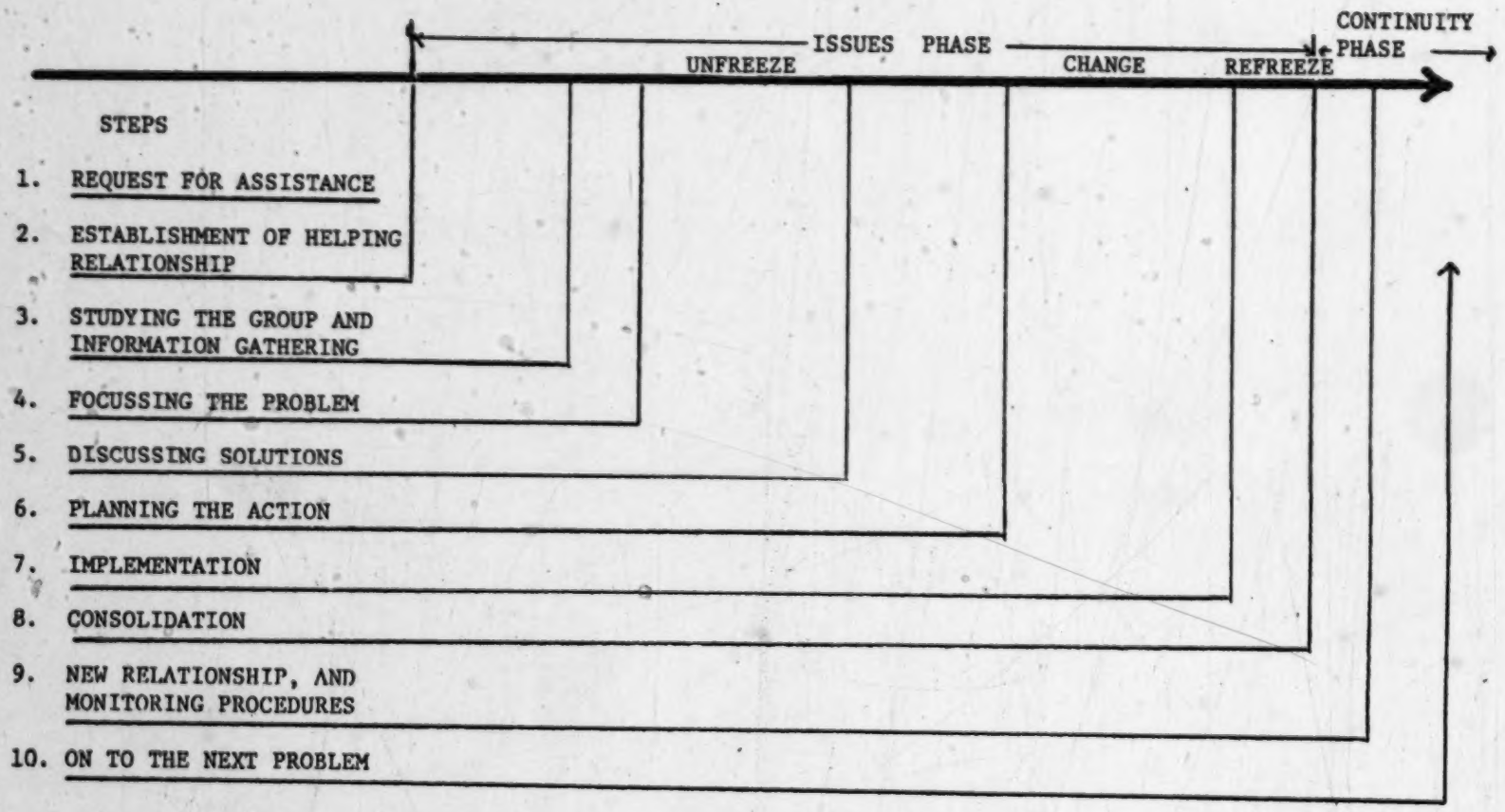

Fig. 6 Enhanced Community Development Process Components

There runs across the page from left to right, near the top, a time line. Above this line are found the phases into which the steps are divided over time. These phases are the issue phase, during which the group recognizes a problem, is induced into action, completes the action and consolidates its gains, and the continuity phase, during which time a monitoring, and perhaps amending, process is taking place.

The issue phase can be reactive or proactive, depending upon the situation. The catalyst will be the ECD practitioner. This phase has three sub-phases, after Lewin[21]: unfreeze, change and refreeze.

During the "unfreeze" sub-phase, there are six steps:

1. Request for Assistance, where either the group has recognized a felt need and communicates its need for help in addressing it, or where, through a catalytic process actually perhaps initiated by the ECD practitioner (the "change agent"), the request for help is made.
2. Establishment of the Helping Relationship, where the change agent can intervene in the group.
3. Studying the Group and Information Gathering. These are really a series of steps that help the change agent get to know the group and its perceived problem.
4. Focussing the Problem. The change agent works carefully, empathetically with the group to help it define and articulate the problem to be solved. Often this process alone is enough to defuse the problem or to suggest solutions. Goals can be set here.
5. Discussing Solutions. This is often a definite stage by itself, calling for sensitivity on the part of the change

agent.

6. Planning the Action. The establishment of objectives and tactics, through group discussion.

The next sub-phase, the "change", involves one step:

1. Implementation, the actual action programme.

The third sub-phrase, the "refreeze", consists of one step as well, the consolidation. This can take the form of a perceived or measured gain, or of an accepted step in social action, or a decision to regroup and try again.

The Continuity Phase has two steps:

1. The monitoring of the situation and possible recapitulation of events to better understand how to tackle the situation next time.
2. The establishment of an ongoing, lower-profile helping relationship to either help with monitoring procedures move into another issue-oriented phase, or to construct and administer a long-term plan and relationship with the group.

The relative amounts of time liable to be taken with each step are shown along the time line.

E. Synthesis

Perpetual and Enhanced Community Development are aspects of the same process. The former represents much of the subject of study, the latter much of the applied discipline. It is possible, in fact, to synthesize the two into one whole, because Enhanced complements Perpetual. This combines the tendency for action with the management of it. The effective synergy produced can be managed far more effectively than might happen in circumstances where, during Perpetual processes it came

naturally. In the model of Perpetual Community Development, shown as Fig. 1 in Part C, the synergy flow from the felt need triangle to the square representing the roiling (or discussion) process. It is in this process that the intervention can be effectively made and it is during the development of this process, during or just after the realization of felt need, that the ECD model can be meshed into the PCD paradigm.

Thus, this synthesis would allow the intervenor (the "change agent") to help the group establish and focus the problem, discuss it thoroughly, set goals and plan for action. Beyond this, hopefully the art of the change agent would allow a higher amount of effective synergy to be created from the discussion (focussing) process and, thus, to achieve more action or a better thrust for social change. The discord and apathy would be proportionately reduced.[22]

In this context, the following process would apply:

1. The group would recognize a problem, or at least a need for help and secure or be amenable to the intervention of, a change agent.
2. The change agent would subtly help the group focus its problems and establish priorities or goals.
3. Through the medium of motivation, more of the group and, therefore, effective synergy is made available to plan action, and to carry it out.
4. Once aroused, the group can analyze its achievements and plan for next time. The periodicity grows longer and longer, the social action becomes more and more effective, producing a higher level of social change.

This, in fact, creates a more effective type of Community Development which is a re-inforced, interventionist group action towards social change, resulting from the empathetic and artful enhancing of the natural tendencies of a group.

In the model of Perpetual Community Development which was developed in Part C of this Chapter, the critical stage which determines if and how much effective synergy would be available for planning and action was in the "roiling" stage. This was the time after a social or environmental situation had created a felt need amongst at least a few people in the group. During the "roil" these people were busy influencing others and a commonality of purpose--or general goal--was developing. The model indicated that this stage was not definitive: the change process would soon flow either backwards into discord and eventual apathy (which would stop it dead), or forward as effective synergy into overt planning and action.

The Enhanced Community Development model, developed in Part D traced a process of empathetic intervention, in which a change agent was requested to come into the group from outside. His first two major acts were the establishment of the helping relationship and a period of information gathering, including a study of the group itself.

The first ECD steps, to be effective, would have to take place early in the roiling process or hopefully before, during the identification of the felt need. The change agent may even, if he is sought early enough, help to priorize the myriad of situations bombarding the group, and be the catylist which transforms one or several unfelt needs and situational stresses into an absolute: an identifiable whole which can be best expressed as turning a whole host of mostly

similar ones into a felt need, and thus into the natural process. In this case, the change agent has been given the potential to perform his full art in the best of circumstances, for he has the opportunity to be involved with the entire natural process period. In this scenario, the critical function in ECD is also during the natural roiling process, for here the two most significant steps in the ECD process are performed: the focussing of the problem and the discussing of solutions.

By artful techniques, the change agent can hopefully reduce the period of roil considerably; at least he can increase the proportion of effective synergy that can in turn be converted into planning and action. This also implies less chance of the group looking inwards in discord and/or apathy. In fact, it is the change agent's challenge to guard against this last possibility.

The natural process of planning and action coincides with the ECD role of helping to plan the action and then helping to manage or coordinate the implementation. Connected with this part of the process, another major role of the change agent comes into play: education by example and perhaps, in special situations, overt teaching. Here the agent has the opportunity to help the group become more adept itself at solving its own problems and its felt needs.

By so doing, the agent may be laying the groundwork for his eventual departure from the group, or at least for a new type of helping relationship, this time more as an encourager and perhaps information coordinator. The change agent can transform his function from that of intervenor and facilitator into that of guide, mentor or servicer.[23]

This function has the effect of prolonging the natural process

by adding another two stages beyond the action phase: consolidation and monitoring. Consolidation is where the gains achieved during the implementation stage are worked into the fabric of the felt need to create a new, higher stage of development. Here also the lessons learned can be discussed and reports written. This stage often serves as an encouragement to future action.[24]

Normally, after the cessation of the actual development thrust--or even during it, for it is sometimes difficult to discern the end or when to quit the action--the tendency for rest and self-congratulation and/or recrimination would set in, plunging the group back towards apathy, and perhaps failing to take full, if any, advantage of the gains made. The change agent, by patiently helping to highlight and measure the gains, can help the group construct longer-term plans and programmes which will not only stand the group in good stead and give it an added motivation for continued community development, but will give it a measure or standard against which it can, with some flexibility, place future endeavours.

Finally, the consolidation phase normalizes the situation and allows effective synergy aroused during the action phase to be put to effective use in the monitoring phase.

The monitoring phase is also foreign to Perpetual Community Development, yet it is the follow-through which ensures successful progress in the future. It must be simple, flexible and effective. If so, it can become a constant reminder to the group not only of its success, but also of its commitment to Perpetual Community Development. An important principle that seems to emerge is that the group itself, even without help, although able to induce development can not prolong it.

Fig. 7 demonstrates in graphic form the generalized results of the synthesis. The ECD component steps are listed down the left side of the diagram. A modified PCD triangle appears in the middle of the paradigm, surrounded by lines which indicate where the ECD steps fall along its sides. The trinagle shows one full side representing the discussion and roil part of the process, proceeding from the felt need impingement. The discussion leads to the establishment of goals which initiates a second side of the triangle, representing the planning phase of the process. The third side represents three action-oriented phases: implementation, consolidation and monitoring. Since this process will almost always result in the identification of new felt needs, the process leads back to the felt need impingement to start all over again.

The triangle in the model thus represents a cyclic, on-going process of group dynamics. The lines surrounding the triangle, representing the intervention of the ECD steps in the process, also give some suggestion of where these various steps fit, in a time-flow sense, in the overall process, and how needful they are.

A dotted line from the goals box to a small dotted triangle representing a greatly-reduced possibility for discord, and a further dotted line from there to a dotted circle in the triangle representing the possibility of apathy, complete the diagram. This is similar to the PCD model except that the chance for discord and apathy is far less. Even though some discord may occur, the Enhanced process is such that it can turn this around into constructive roiling again, thus going some way to creating a positive decision to proceed with action. In fact, it is a fundamental tenant to the argument that apathy is an ex-

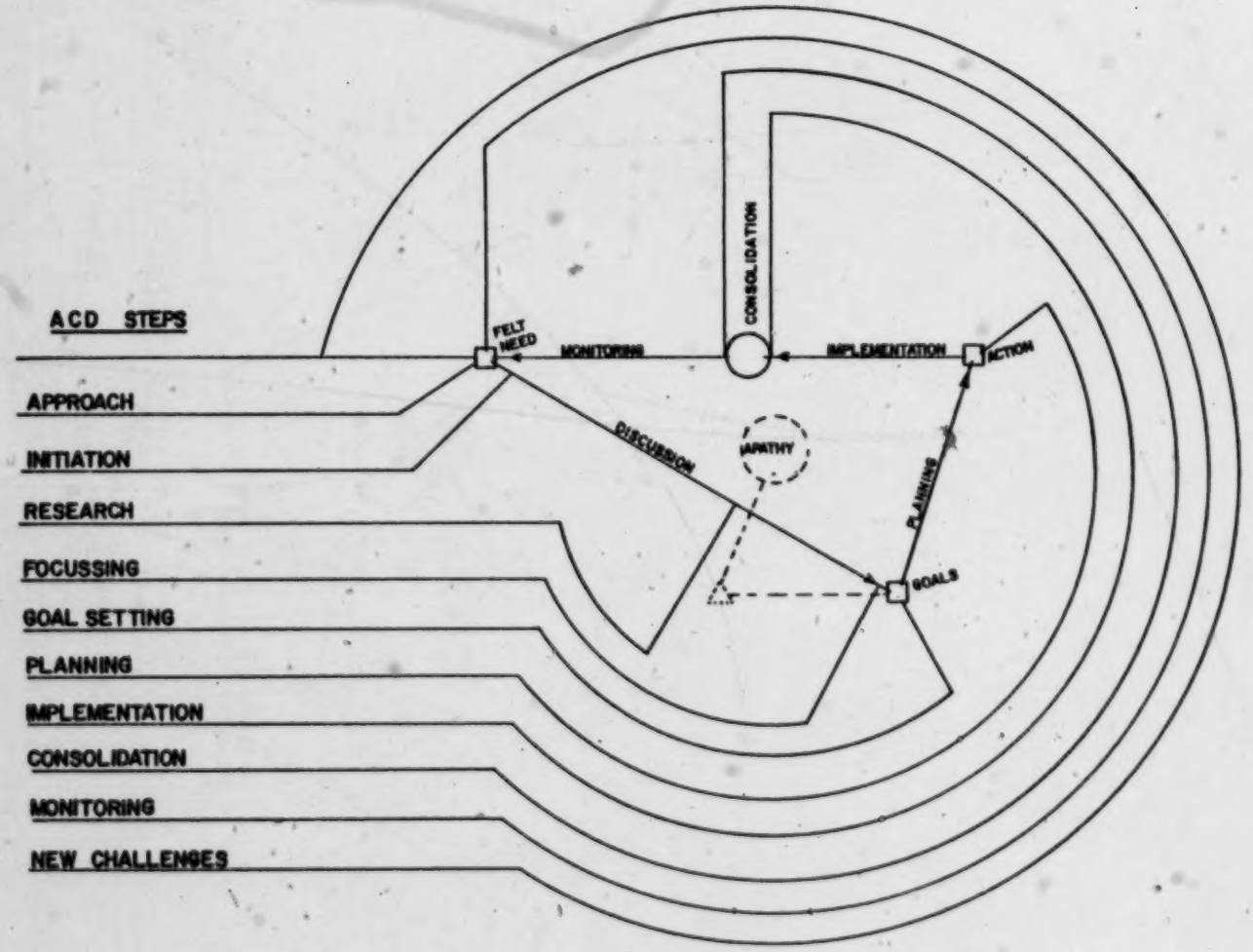

Fig. 7 A Model of Enhanced Community Development

ception rather than the rule. Indeed, this is perhaps the most significant point to be made in this study thus far: proper use of both PCD and ECD should lead to less discord, less group restlessness, less apathy, and to more action-oriented planning and implementation.

Fig. 8 is an evolution of Fig. 5, which was a graph showing the results of the Perpetual Community Development Process. In this diagram, showing the effects of a combination of PCD and ECD to the original sine curve, that curve is higher on the graph: effective synergy is more plentiful because less synergy is lost in discord.

Because more action is possible, the curve rises more steeply, and forms a broader plateau at the top, since the action process may be expected to continue longer. The fall is steeper, but also shorter, resulting in a higher valley than before.

The net effect seems to be an accumulated motivation (which is one of the factors described by the graph), and this could mean that each successive curve might have a higher peak and valley than the one before.

F. Continuous Community Development

The discussion in this study thus far has lead to the possibility of a further stage in the evolution of Community Development. As is demonstrated in Fig. 8, the possibility seems to exist that properly applied ECD will in fact result in an on-going, high-level group action that needs no further outside intervention. This is the goal of many change agents. It is termed here "Continuous Community Development, or CCD". Once the curve in Fig. 8 has reached some upper level of achievement, it may flatten out considerably.

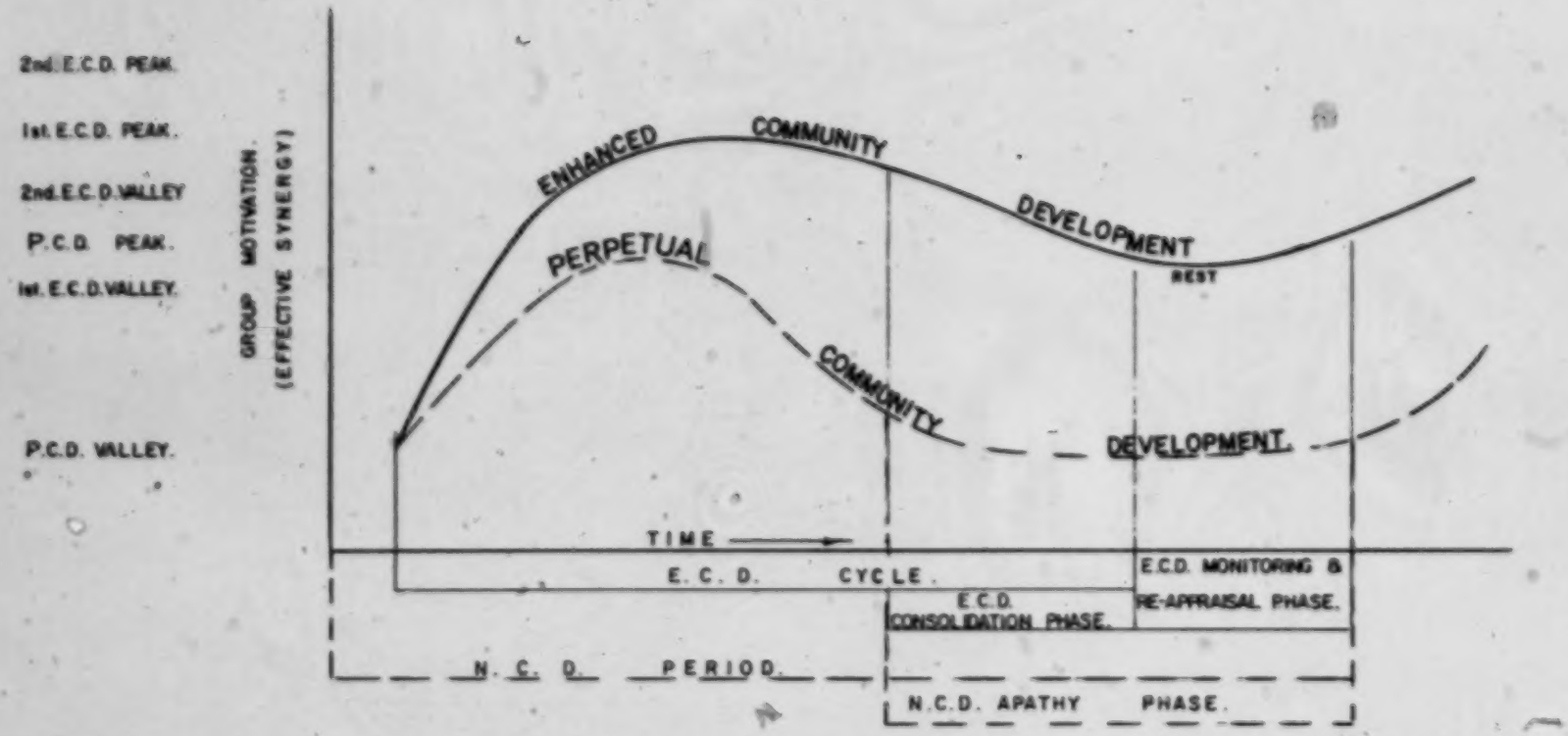

Fig. 8 Effective Symmetary Graph Comparing PCD and ECD Models

This stage may be regarded as the ultimate achievement of the group process: the evolution of a self-perpetuating process which carries the group to new heights. It may be thought of as Perpetual Community Development on a highest-possible level. It does not need the attention of a change agent, except as a monitor, or as a possible group advisor on specific situations.

Thus, the process can realize its potential. Fig. 9 shows this diagrammatically as a flow from PCD and ECD to CCD. Enhanced Community Development may well be, as a result, merely a transition stage through which groups may have to flow if they wish to achieve Continuous Community Development. But it must be pointed out rather emphatically that it is also possible for a group to move from its natural PCD into CCD through its own efforts: that is to say, without the help of a change agent. That this occurs is probable. Yet, nevertheless, the ECD stage seems necessary for most groups most of the time, simply because the modern world thrusts complexity and uncertainty at groups and most seem unable to cope entirely by themselves.

G. Summary

For the purposes of this study, Community Development is defined as being group action to secure social change. This action arises out of group restlessness, which in turn is based on the impingement of felt need. Two aspects of Community Development are studied: the subject itself, and its practical application in the field.

A survey of known characteristics of the dynamics of change indicates that the potential for change lies latent within any body, be it physical or social. Change is the action process of seeking equi-

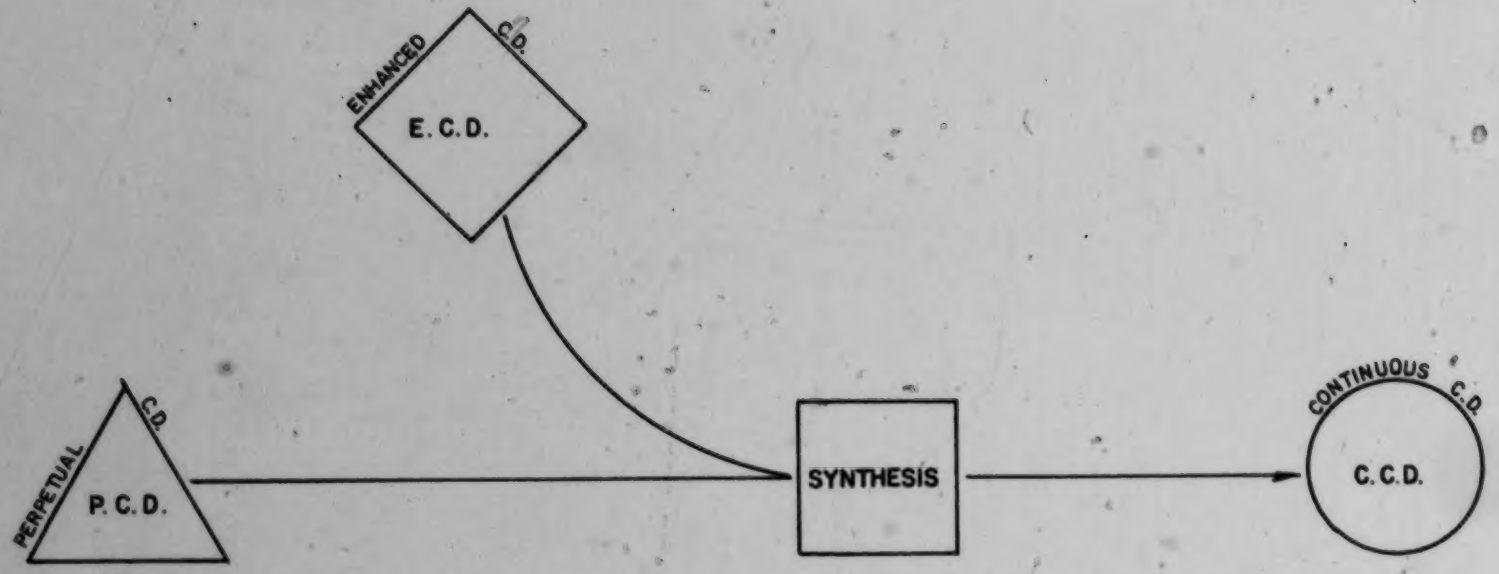

Fig. 9 Postulated Evolutionary Process from PCD to CCD

librium. Ironically, there also exists within any system, a resistance to change. Yet change is inevitable through time.

The result of group restlessness in the social sense is a phenomenon called in this study "Perpetual Community Development". This is often manifested as a primal, often informal activity which is really a thrust towards change. No actual achievement is necessary--it is the process itself that is the subject of the study.

Perpetual Community Development has two basic characteristics which are identified as "periodicity" and "perpetuity". The first occurs because not all change thrusts are of the same magnitude, and the inevitable interval between them is not of a standard length. The second refers to the fact that, given group existence, there will always be some sort of process underway, no matter how slight or slow it may seem to be.

A model of the internal dynamics of PCD shows "roiling" and discord to be dominant factors. A graph of the process shows a sine curve which indicates some high motivational levels at times, but which always returns to base or nearly so.

Enhanced Community Development is the artificial but artful intervention in group affairs by a trained, sensitive outsider, the "change agent". The term implies careful understanding of the group and its problems and felt needs, and it also implies management or focussing of those needs. A ten-step model is derived which follows the process through the initiation stage to the final ones of follow-through and monitoring. ECD is based upon PCD.

A further possibility is that a group may, at some stage, be able to so manage itself that it can have an almost continuous process

for effective change, which is termed "Continuous Community Development". This is the ultimate step in the Community Development spectrum and represents the ability of a group to self-actualize.

All three processes are postulated to be not only possible but probable, and therefore should be the subjects of major study both in the classroom and the field.

Notes and References - Chapter III

1. See for example, Biddle and Biddle.

2. Hywell Griffiths, "The Aim and Objectives of Community Development", CD Journal (9-2, April 1974); M. G. Hewson, "What is CD?", CD Bulletin (9-1, December 1957); M. R. Snodin, "Group Action and Social Progress", CD Bulletin (10-3, June 1959).

3. A. W. Warner, D. Morse and Y. E. Cooney, The Environment of Change (Columbia Press, 1969).

4. G. L. Lippitt, Visualizing Change (Fairfax, Va.: NTL Learning Resources Corporation, 1973), p. 2.

5. E. M. Rogers and F. F. Shoemaker, Communication of Innovations (New York: Macmillan Company, 1971), p. 7.

6. R. Lippitt, J. Watson and B. Westley, The Dynamics of Planned Change (New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1958), pp. 32-36. This is based on their contention that "many group dynamic techniques aim at redistributing power in the group so that it (the group) can be guided by the will of its members", p. 24.

7. H. Griffiths in a book review on Ross' Community Organization in the CD Journal (4-2, April 1969), comments that "it would be . . . realistic to acknowledge as axiomatic that change occurs: that change is the dynamic component of our lives."

8. W. Biddle, as quoted in Lippitt et al, ibid., assumes that communities fail to grow because of apathy and fragmentation which originates in "past failures, fractionalism and loss of communal self-confidence," p. 36; S. Alinsky, as quoted in the same book, disagrees, claiming all available energy is consumed in internal bickering, p. 38.

9. Some may feel this begs the question of group leadership and of group type. It has been tacitly assumed in most of the literature that CD means the initiation and carrying out of a project. In this case, a number of factors, well covered in the literature of the past 20 years, might affect the outcome. That is not what is in doubt. The thesis of my argument is that whenever a group occurs, Natural Community Development (NCD) is a natural concomitant.

   This is not to say that for specific issue- or project-oriented programmes a new group need not be formed, but rather to suggest that quite often groups within an area of interest or geography already exist, with their processor potential for NCD. These should be sought out. As far as it goes, this may be termed "initiation", but it is not a particularly delicate or artful job in the first instance. For the remainder of the study, it is assumed that a group already exists.

10. The "roiling process" can be defined as that part of group

dynamics that comes after stimulation, but before structured discussion, or overt management by the group leadership. The process can be likened to the boiling of water, with a swirling, up and down movement of synergy, ideas, conflicts, opinions and suggestions. It is usually an essential first step to discussion.

11. W. J. and L. J. Biddle, The Community Development Process New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965).

12. P. Friere, Pedagogy of the Oppressed (New York: Seabury Press, 1970).

13. For example, see G. Lippitt, ibid., who talks about behavior, sensitivity, motivation and learning, and quotes Joseph Luft (p. 22) and his model of human behavior with its four quadrants and 11 characteristics as applying to groups.

14. See W. Schmidt and R. Tannenbaum, as quoted in Lippitt's book, ibid., p. 23.

15. R. Lippitt, J. Watson and B. Westley, ibid., p. 24.

16. S. Alinsky, as quoted in Lippitt et al, p. 29. Also see his Reveille for Radicals (Urbana: University of Chicago Press, 1949).

17. Lippitt et al, p. 38.

18. Lippitt et al, p. 123.

19. See S. Alinsky, Reveille for Radicals (Urbana: University of Chicago Press, 1949).

20. Lippitt et al, ibid., p. 123.

21. K. Lewin, Field Theory in Social Science (New York: Harper and Row, 1951).

22. It is instructive to look at the findings of a study by the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development, which in 1965 found that the chief mistakes, resulting in failure or at least poor performance of a number of CD projects, were:
    1. Lack of careful prior conception and planning.
    2. Too much attempted in too little time.
    3. Lack of resources, and staff defects.

    Similarly, a number of projects judged successful were also analyzed and the main reasons for success were:
    1. Quality of staff.
    2. Prior planning.
    3. Knowledge of local and national situations.
    4. Material and financial backing.
    5. The use of procedures that increase motivation, interest, participation and cooperation.

    These are all quoted by A.V.S. Lockhead in his article, "The Search for Measurement in Social Development", CD Journal (4-2, April 1969).

23. See G. Lippitt and his models for planned social change. The metamorphosis is on the part of the change agent, not the group, but is based on the development of group maturity.

24. See also, G. Lovell and G. Riches "Evaluation in Community Work (Parts I and II)", CD Journal (2-1 and 3-1, September 1967 January 1968). Here, especially in Part II, Table III (p. 18) summarizes the characteristics of groups that have to be changed to achieve social action. They are: apathy, inadequacy, self-centered antipathy, prejudice, mistrust, gullibility, impatience, instability and ignorance.

CHAPTER IV

COMPREHENSIVE PLANNING

A. Overview

This study is an attempt to derive a paradigm that describes the interrelationship between Enhanced Community Development and Comprehensive Planning as it is practiced in Alberta. We have seen in Chapter II the natural processes that are inevitable in groups and which lead sooner or later to social change. The place of the Change Agent as a facilitator of this natural tendency was also described. In Chapter III these concepts were placed in a model for further analysis.

In this Chapter, the process of Comprehensive Planning as represented by the preparation of a General Municipal Plan in Alberta will be described, and a suitable model constructed.

Community Development and Comprehensive Planning seem to have a number of factors in common: each seeks to achieve a better community, each is based on some group perception of a "higher good", and each is a process which involves similar phases and elements. That is why Comprehensive Planning has been chosen to compare with Community Development in a combined paradigm.

To derive the paradigm for Comprehensive Planning, it is first necessary to investigate what the term means and what its significance is in Alberta. A distince difference between Community Development and Comprehensive Planning emerges first, and that has to do with the base

from which each flows. As has been seen in Chapters I and II, Community Development evolves from group dynamics. Comprehensive Planning is part and parcel of a professional practice commonly called "Town Planning", although the word "Town" was officially dropped from the name of the professional Institute in 1974. Its focus or base, from which all else is built, is the concept of land use.[1]

The term "land use", as Chapin points out, is used in at least three ways in contemporary planning literature: the spatial distribution of city (or rural) functions; activity patterns of people and their space requirements; and "the role that value systems of people play as they regulate space-using activities and thence the use patterns which emerge".[2] There is thus an ascending order of complexity in land use beginning with an inventory of what exists at present, through the observed present and, thus, possible future spatial needs of society, to the study of land use under particular societal perceptions and requirements. This hierarchy might be said to involve description, analysis and design.

The process is definitely interventionist as opposed to facilitatory because it is mainly a study of past trends, present attitudes, and future probabilities in order to understand how to influence the future.

A very simple diagram of the concept of land use planning is shown in Fig. 10. Here, three circles represent the three basic elements which define the planning process: people, land use and economics. And the concept itself can be defined as "the interrelationship between people and their need to utilize land as modified by economics. Around all three of these is drawn another circle labelled "politics", for it

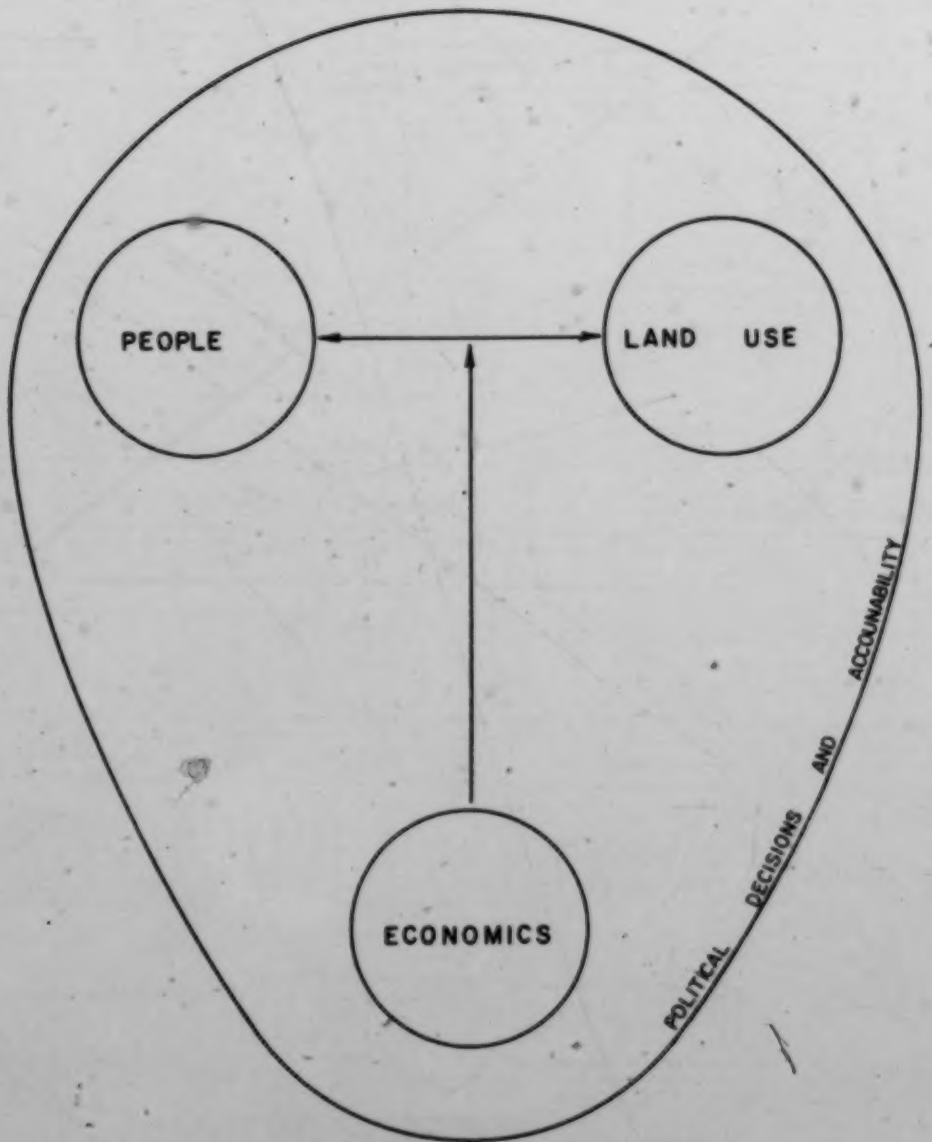

Fig. 10 General Comprehensive Planning Model

is within the framework of the political system of the day that land use planning is carried out.[3]

Comprehensive planning is, as its name suggests, land use planning at its most general level. It is usually an operation carried out in the public sphere by practitioners accountable to bodies elected by the public at large. Thus, Murchie, Stuart and Taylor comment, "land use planning in its simplest terms has been defined as a rational process of identifying the goals of a community and developing means by which these can be met, through control over the use to which land is put".[4]

Goodman and Freund describe the same process in this way: "a comprehensive plan is an official public document adopted by a local government as a policy guide to decisions about the physical development of the community."[5] Chapin views the process from two perspectives, which amount to the same thing: firstly, "the land use plan reflects an analysis of urban activity systems and a carefully studied estimate of future land requirements for expansion and renewal, showing how development in the urban area should proceed in the future to ensure the best possible physical environment for urban living, the most economic use of land, and the proper balance in use from a cost-revenue point of view", and, secondly, "(it) embodies a proposal as to how expansion and renewal should proceed in the future, recognizing local objectives and generally accepted principles of health, safety, convenience, economy, and the general amenities of urban living".[6]

Land use planning, and its manifestation of "Comprehensive Planning", is essentially a search for order which originated in the urban context but which now, through a similar process termed "regional plan-

ning", relates to rural areas as well.

B. The Alberta Case: General Municipal Planning

The principles and practice of Comprehensive Planning (hereinafter referred to as "CP") are best illustrated in the Alberta context by the Municipal General Plan (hereinafter called the "MGP") or the General Municipal Plan ("GMP"). This is a document required by law for communities and larger rural districts which describes the land uses proposed for a municipality and the staging of future development.

The MGP is a bylaw passed by the Council of an Alberta municipality and, as a result, is a legal and formal statement of future intentions. Yet, it is also an elastic document meant to provide a guideline for land use and policy development, rather than a set piece of rigid strategy. A definitive statement found as a frontispiece on some MGP reports is as follows:

> A General Plan is a document intended to help public policy makers monitor and predict developmental potential. It is not a literal document in the sense of representing an accurate picture of the future. It suggests guidelines to help the town control and adapt to predicted situations. As such, it is an extremely important tool in the process of attempting to ensure that the citizens of the municipality derive the best possible quality of life.[7]

Essentially, the GMP is developed through a process which begins (and unfortunately often ends) with a formal decision of one or more municipal councils. This process can be traced through three perspectives: the formal, legal process spelled out through the Alberta Planning Act, 1977, the practiced technical process undertaken by the professional planners who conduct the study and plan-preparation phases, and the very informal, hard-to-define process of public involvement.[8]

The legal process is shown in Fig. 11. It is essentially a series of steps through which a municipality must pass in order to

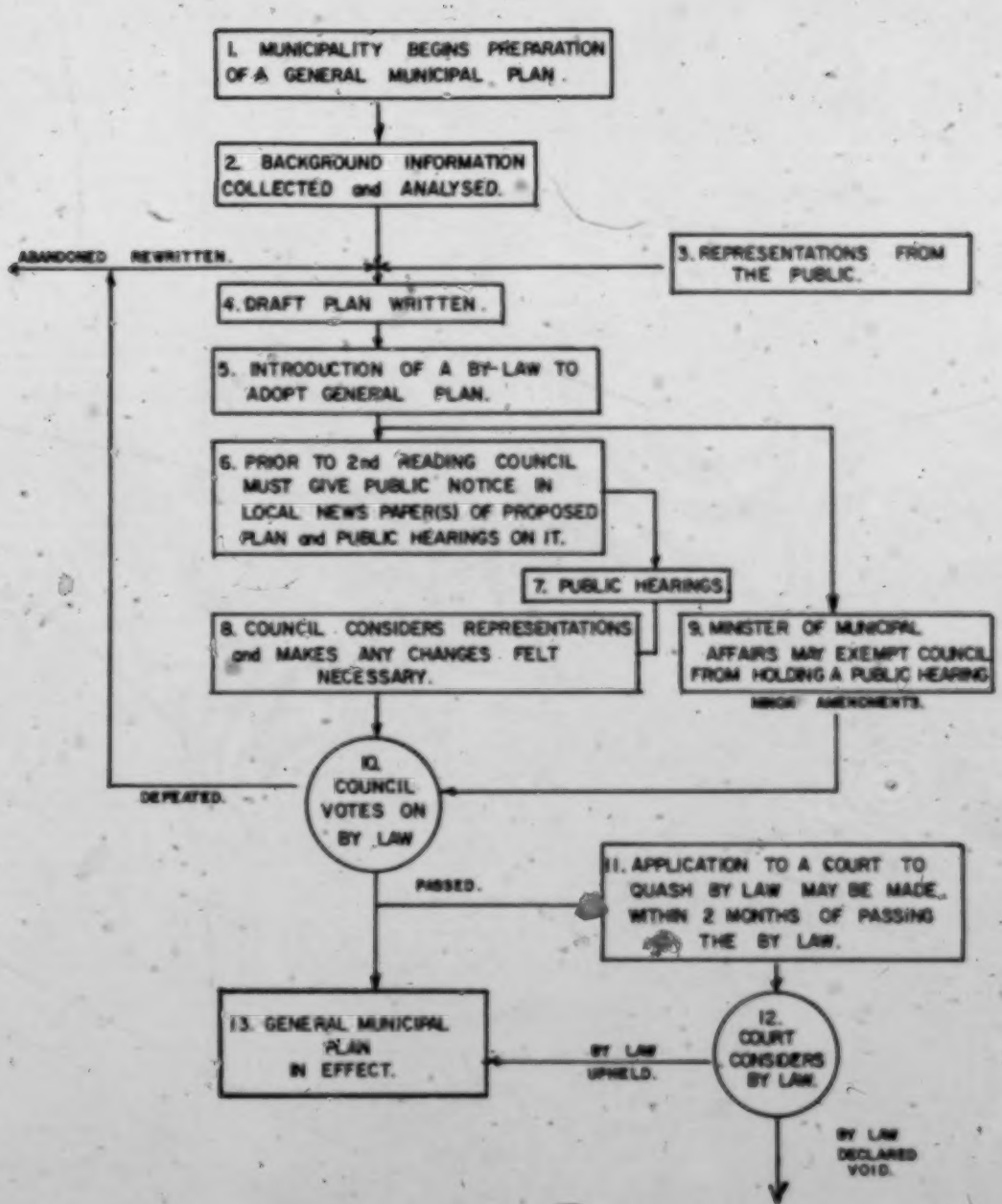
1. MUNICIPALITY BEGINS PREPARATION OF A GENERAL MUNICIPAL PLAN.
2. BACKGROUND INFORMATION COLLECTED and ANALYSED.
ABANDONED REWRITTEN.
3. REPRESENTATIONS FROM THE PUBLIC.
4. DRAFT PLAN WRITTEN.
5. INTRODUCTION OF A BY-LAW TO ADOPT GENERAL PLAN.
6. PRIOR TO 2nd READING COUNCIL MUST GIVE PUBLIC NOTICE IN LOCAL NEWS PAPER(S) OF PROPOSED PLAN and PUBLIC HEARINGS ON IT.
7. PUBLIC HEARINGS
8. COUNCIL CONSIDERS REPRESENTATIONS and MAKES ANY CHANGES FELT NECESSARY.
9. MINISTER OF MUNICIPAL AFFAIRS MAY EXEMPT COUNCIL FROM HOLDING A PUBLIC HEARING
MINOR AMENDMENTS.
10. COUNCIL VOTES ON BY LAW
DEFEATED.
PASSED.
11. APPLICATION TO A COURT TO QUASH BY LAW MAY BE MADE, WITHIN 2 MONTHS OF PASSING THE BY LAW.
12. COURT CONSIDERS BY LAW.
BY LAW UPHELD.
13. GENERAL MUNICIPAL PLAN IN EFFECT.
BY LAW DECLARED VOID.

Fig. 11 GMP Process (Legal) [after Murchie, Stuart and Taylor]

achieve a GMP. Some of these are unnecessary except on appeal.[9] The steps are:

1. The Initiation - where the Municipality begins preparation of the plan.
2. The Collation - where background information is collected and analyzed.
3. Public Participation - at this point, the public must be asked for input.
4. Draft Plan - a written document for study and comment is prepared.
5. Bylaw First-Reading - the bylaw for adoption of the Plan is introduced into the process, but the Plan is still subject to revision.
6. Public Notice - legal notice must be given by the municipality for a public hearing.
7. Public Hearing - this is the formal chance for citizens to react to the draft plan.
8. Plan Finalization - the Municipal Council must then consider the public representations and decide upon a final Plan.
9. Ministerial Exemptions - in certain circumstances, at the discretion of the Minister of Municipal Affairs, the Municipal Council may be exempted from holding a public hearing. (What such circumstances might be is unclear in the Act.)
10. Bylaw Enactment - the bylaw establishing the GMP as official municipal policy is then enacted.
11. Court Appeals - upon a point of law, application may be made to a Court to quash the bylaw.

12. Court Decision - the Court would then consider the bylaw and decide whether or not it should be declared void. If it rules against the bylaw, thus voiding it, the GMP process is abruptly ended, unless Council can construct and pass another bylaw that is not voided. If the Court rules in favour of the bylaw, the GMP is in effect from that moment on.

13. GMP in Effect - in almost all cases, the GMP bylaw is not challenged because it can only be appealed on points of law, not on content, and, therefore, does not have to be referred to a Court. In practice, it is referred to the Minister of Municipal Affairs' office for comment before final reading and a copy deposited there after the bylaw has been passed, mostly because the Municipality will probably have received a grant from that Department (through the Alberta Planning Branch) to defray at least part of the cost of Plan preparation.

Fig. 12 shows the technical process undertaken by professional planners who are usually charged with the preparation of the Plan, at least up to the draft stage.

This process is in effect an indepth study of the several elements which constitute a modern community, with a view to determining the highest and best uses for the land available. The study can be broken into five main component parts: Inventory, Synthesis, Analysis, Plan Alternatives, and Draft Plan.[10]

The Inventory section compiles the technical data upon which the plan itself will be based. Typically, it will include an inventory

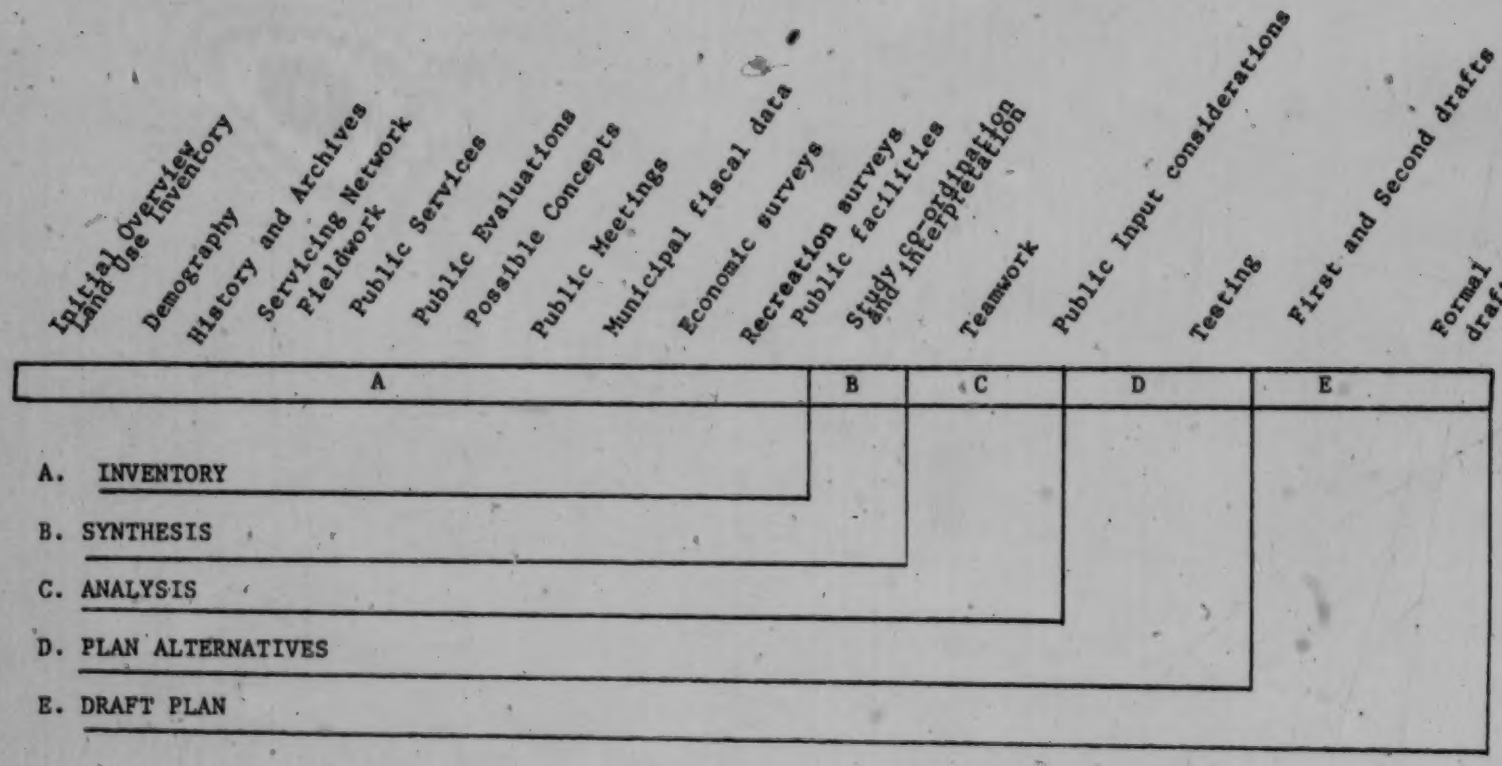

Fig. 12 General Municipal Planning Process (Technical)

of present land use, including ownership, age, condition and distribution, demographic data, transportation networks, and reports compiled by other disciplines such as engineering (service data concerning water, sewer, roads, drainage, lighting, transit, traffic flow, gas lines, other pipelines, telephone and other conduits, etc.), municipal administration (taxation, assessment and budgetary data, council policies and services such as libraries, fire and police protection, PSS and other social welfare assistance), recreation (parks, playfields, facilities and programmes), real estate (land values, trends and history), commercial (retail trade volumes, drawing power, trading areas, consumer habits, parking, building square footages, wholesale and industrial statistics, etc.), and education (schools, enrollments and other facilities).

The Synthesis phase puts all of these together and into perspective, one to the other, to achieve an appreciation of the municipality as it exists up to and including the study period.

The Analysis portion then takes the gathered, collated data, and, with the help of public committees and other bodies, begins the sub-process of deriving meaningful trends and desires, and thus to set meaningful objectives.

The Plan Alternatives phase is where a number of scenarios are constructed to achieve the objectives set out in the previous phase. The most promising alternatives are investigated in depth, and the implications and consequences of each alternative are described.

Based on the Alternatives, one is finally chosen (often not by the Planners, but by an appointed committee of citizens, administrators and elected people), and a Draft Plan is written for first reading in

Council. Beyond this point, except for amendments (and possible re-writes), the technical process is complete, except that a follow-through stage (called "monitoring") is required once the bylaw is in place, and this may also require the advice of a Planner from time to time.

The public involvement process element is the least structured one in the preparation of a GMP. Partially this is due to the relative lack of emphasis given by the Act itself, although this is no less than given to the technical process. Partially, also, the citizen participation process is mostly informal by its very nature. Some municipalities are very adept at involving lay people in public activities, others are frankly intimidated by the idea that the public should be invited to freely participate in the deliberations. Often this is because of fear that the process will be taken over by "pressure groups" or special-interest groups who are becoming increasingly well organized and able to influence political decisions. Other municipal councils (and particularly municipal administrators) are concerned that too much public participation would cause unwanted delays to a costly process.

As a result, public participation can and does take different forms in different municipalities, and at different times during the evolution or updating of General Municipal Plans. Nevertheless, it is possible to construct a generalized, idealized model (Fig. 13) which shows the process as it is, or could be, practiced.[11]

Basic to this concept is the appointment of a "Review Committee" which, under one name or another, is often appointed to supervise the preparation of a plan. Usually constituted by a resolution of Council, its normal composition will be: one or more members of Council, the Municipal Development Officer, the Municipal Administrator, the Plan Co-

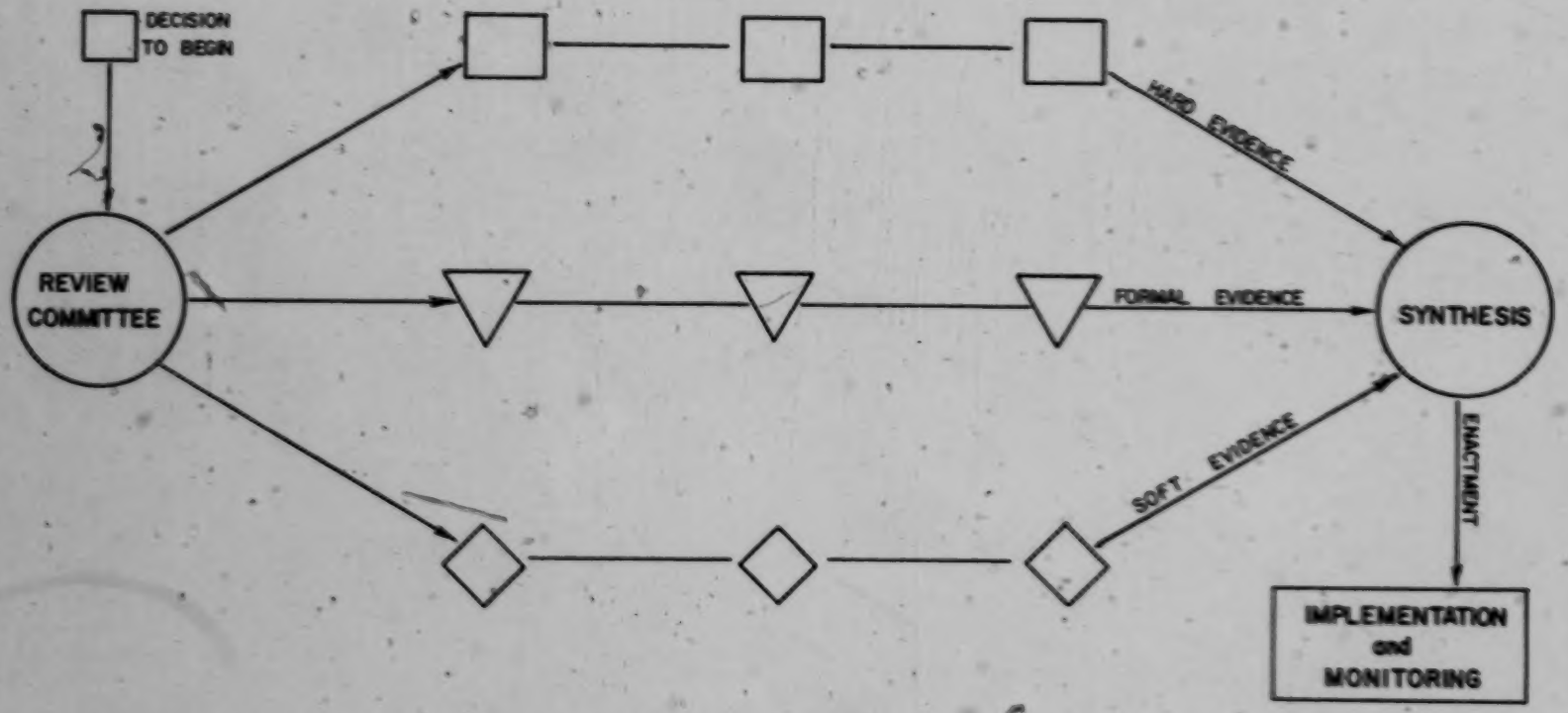

Fig. 13 The Process (Public Involvement)

ordinator (most often a professional planner and head of the Study Team), representatives from the School Board, Municipal Planning Commission, Recreation Board, Chamber of Commerce, surrounding municipalities, the Recreation Director, Municipal Engineer, Fire Chief, PSS Director, Police Chief, and several citizens-at-large.

The Committee is often quite large, as a result, and relatively unwieldy. Furthermore, it is composed mostly of representatives of special interests, and of the municipal administration. For this reason, some municipalities, while keeping the committee to monitor week-to-week progress on the Plan, also seek citizen involvement through other means and at various stages.

Thus is is possible to distinguish three types of general public participation: that which produces the "hard evidence" of publically-felt need, through written documents such as questionnaires, interview sheets, briefs and letters; that which results in "formal evidence", usually minutes or accounts of public meetings and hearings, but sometimes even referendums; and that which constitutes "soft evidence", because it is not written and often casual, such as radio and TV talk and response programmes, and demonstrations.

All of these can influence the course of the Plan, and the final decisions. Most influential is the "hard evidence" because it is usually solicited early in the process, is quantifiable, and is often regarded by the Review Committee as being neutral and, therefore, more representative of the real mood of the public.

All of these types can be utilized at any or all parts of the process. In several cases, useful input has been acquired very early in the game through initial workshops and heavy publicity. Conversely,

important input has been observed to continue past the Bylaw Enactment stage and into the monitoring stage. The most useful input, as indicated in the model, is at the beginning of the inventory, before, during and after public meetings, and during the public hearing.

The GMP is the single most important policy document that a municipality can produce: it is meant to stand as the basis for development, for growth, and for the quality of life in the municipality. The process by which it is produced is, therefore, of fundamental interest to persons interested in CD. The process which derives the Plan is equally important because it provides a unique opportunity for the involvement of a whole community.

Once a municipality has determined that it will construct a General Municipal Plan, or that it will substantially update an existing one, it sets into motion a complex series of events, both legally and publically. It must be remembered, however, that these events are not always as totally consecutive and ordered as a breakdown makes them seem, and they are not all of the same length. Indeed, in fact, several may be operative at once, and each may be dormant for some period during the total process, and then be reactivated.

C. The GMP Model

The GMP process is, in fact, a process for preparing, and later monitoring and revising a General Municipal Plan. As already described, it consists of three major elements, the legal sub-process, the technical sub-process, and the public input sub-process.

From this, and the three elements described in Part B of this Chapter, it becomes possible to construct a more abstract, definitive

model, which, in one way or another, includes all the main elements normally found in the process. This is shown in Fig. 14.

Here, a series of 15 steps are shown on three levels, which are those of the legal process (council), public input (as represen-tated by the Advisory Committee), and the technical.

The process begins on the legal level with steps A (Plan Initiation by Council), B (Arrangements for Funding), and C (Appointment of technical staff). At step D, the Advisory Committee is formed, and the process can begin in earnest. The technical level meanwhile (often composed of non-local people except in the largest cities) has begun the Inventory, which is recognized as Step E. At this stage, both the Advisory Committee and the public are involved. Step F is mainly on the technical level as well, to synthesize and analyze the data. Again, the Advisory Committee, performing its dual role of advising the technical staff and monitoring progress for Council, will have input.

Step G is the determination of policy alternatives and objectives based partially upon the technical data and partially upon public input. Here the flow line is on the Advisory Committee level for it is there that decisions can be made for a draft Plan. Following this, the flow returns to the technical plane for the preparation of a formal draft. This is Step H.

Step I send this draft back to the Advisory Committee for response, and perhaps for public input. Step J sends the document to Council for first reading of the adopting bylaw. Staying on this formal level, step K involves the required public hearing. Once this has been completed and its results discussed by Council and the Advisory

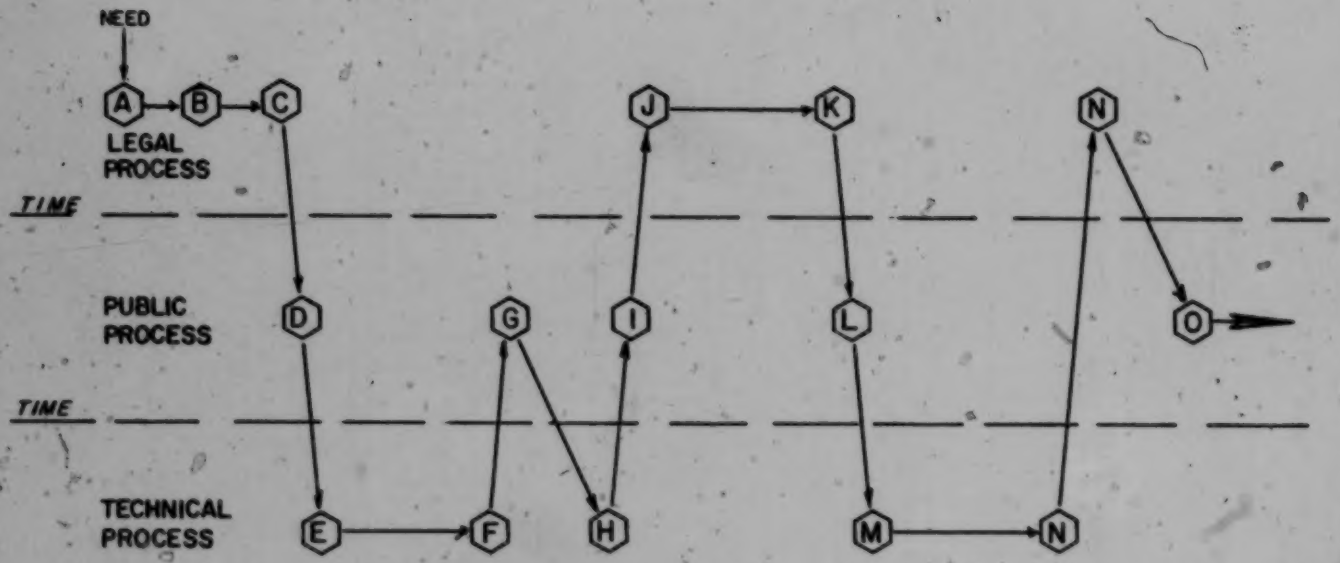

Fig. 14 The GMP Process (Full)

Committee (Step L), the document is sent back to the technical level (step M) for the preparation of the final Plan. And, to end the preparation part of the process, this final draft is sent back to Council for second and third readings, at which time, unless a Court of Law finds, upon application that it must intervene, the GMP is in place.

The process does not stop there, however. With the experience gained in advising and monitoring the preparation of the Plan, the Advisory Committee is now in a position to follow through and monitor the Plan and its implementation. This helps to ensure elasticity and empathetic management upon the part of both Council and its administrative functionaries.

Fig. 15 shows the process as a self-contained paradigm. The impetus, in the form of felt need, impinges first upon the public (represented by a circle). The legal process is then invoked (triangle) and the technicians brought in (shown as a square).

The first discussions and interrelationships are between the public and the legal people (mostly Council). These are labelled "1" on the diagram, and are represented by arrows running between the circle and the triangle. The legal process then relates to the technical arm ("2") who in turn refer back to the public ("3"). Then a fourth and final interaction takes place involving all three actors. The result of all this is the Plan, which issues from the legal process. The paradigm can remain to monitor and update the Plan as well.

Thus can a General Plan is originated, researched, formulated, promulgated and implemented. The process must be started, but it then can continue indefinitely.

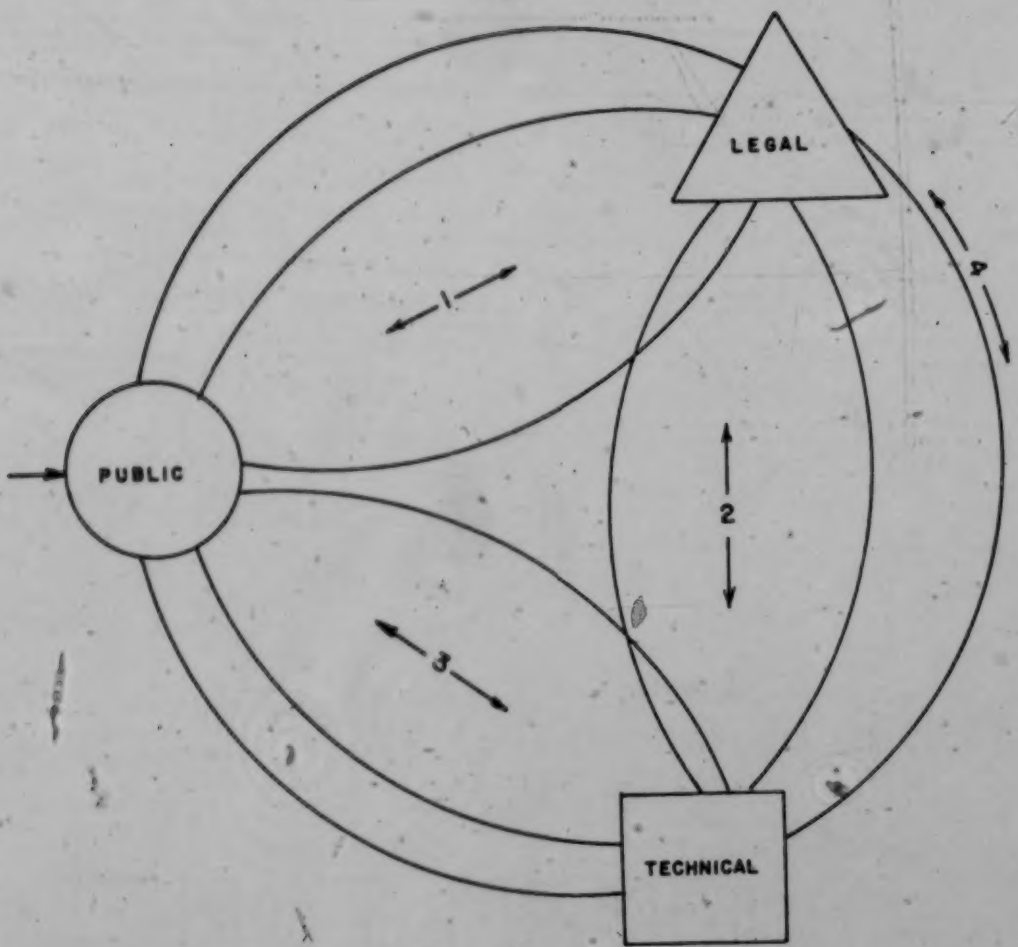

Fig. 15 General Municipal Planning Paradigm

D. Summary

This Chapter seeks to develop a model of the General Municipal Planning Process as it is generally applied in Alberta. It touches upon various perspectives of comprehensive planning and then focusses on the process by which General Municipal Plans are developed for and by municipalities in the Province.

Three separate sub-processes are recognized: the legal, technical and public participation elements. Each is analyzed and a model developed to fit the analysis.

The legal sub-process and model consists of 13 steps by which the bylaw, called the General Municipal Plan, is initiated, researched, constructed, enacted, appealed if need be, and enforced. The technical sub-process embraces five phases, and its paradigm is shown as a time line with the five in place (although overlapping). It is by means of this sub-process that the Plan is researched and prepared in draft form. The third sub-process, public participation, consists itself of three coincidental public inputs: formal evidence, such as that had from public meetings, hard evidence, from briefs and evaluation techniques, and soft evidence, from interviews and empathetic understanding. Beginning with the simple model of Planning, as shown in Fig. 10, and utilizing the three component models of the GMP process, two paradigms can be developed: a flow-line diagram (Fig. 14) showing the 15 steps in the generalized process, and a more abstract one (Fig. 15) which exhibits the main characteristics of the process.

Notes and References - Chapter IV

1. This continues to be a major subject of debate within the Canadian Institute of Planners. As the profession grows and evolves, it finds itself with more and more highly-trained, focussed specialists who have zeroed in on areas of application quite removed from land use per se. These, plus those who have come to the profession through such design-oriented disciplines as architecture see the planning paradigm in three-dimension form, or as a social science evolved but now divorced from land use. Nevertheless, the majority of Planners still work in land use.

2. See Stuart Chapin, Urban Land Use Planning, 3rd edition (Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1979). This has been a standard text in the planning field for almost 15 years and thus a whole generation of new planners have been brought up with this bias.

3. This simple paradigm and definition has been used extensively by the author in his teaching at the University of Alberta, and forms one of the basic elements of the Certificate in Applied Land Use Planning Techniques offered by the Faculty of Extension at that University.

4. G. Murchie, D. Stuart and N. Taylor, in the pamphlet-book Planning in Alberta (Edmonton: Alberta Municipal Affairs, 1978), p. 1.

5. See W. I. Goodman and E. C. Freund, ed's, in their compendium Principles and Practice of Urban Planning (Washington: International City Managers' Association, 1968), p.

6. F. S. Chapin, ibid., 3rd edition, p. 3.

7. See, for example, The Town of Wainwright General Plan or Athabasca General Plan, both available at the Planning Library, Alberta Department of Municipal Affairs.

8. The Alberta Planning Act 1977 (Edmonton: Queen's Printer, 1977) refers. see SS59-61 and especially SS 61, which says:

   "A general municipal plan shall
   - (a) describe
     - (i) the land uses proposed for the municipality, and
     - (ii) the manner of and the sequence proposed for future development in the municipality;
   - (b) designate the areas of the municipality that would, in the opinion of the council, be suitable for an area structure plan or area redevelopment plan, or both;
   - (c) contain such other matters as the council considers necessary."

9. The paradigm shown in Fig. 11 is from Murchie, Stuart and Taylor's pamphlet, ibid., and represents the generalized process most municipalities follow. In particular cases, however, it

can vary in detail.

10. This division is supported by many planners in practice in Alberta, although some would prefer different wording, such as Inventory, Analysis, Draft Plans, Re-Plans and Formal Plans. It must be noted again that planning--even in the structure of General Plan Preparation--is not a precise art, and most planning agencies or companies have their own pet methodology. Nevertheless, the general thrust is similar.

11. As pointed out in notes 9 and 10 above, planning is an imprecise art. The paradigm shown in Fig. 13 meets the general approval of several planners the author consulted. The idea of major public participation is new, however, and the process is fumbling along at the moment. A hoped-for effect of this study will be to stimulate more thought and concern among both planners and community change agents about this matter.

12. Prepared in 1979 by Stanley Associates Engineering Ltd., whose planning department prepared the diagram. While useful as an approach, this is not the final one chosen for this study because it offers a perspective that does not distil out some of the basic elements described earlier in this study. The Stanley study has, nevertheless, the advantage of showing another similar process. The differences between this and the one finally used in this study (Fig. 16) are mostly cosmetic.

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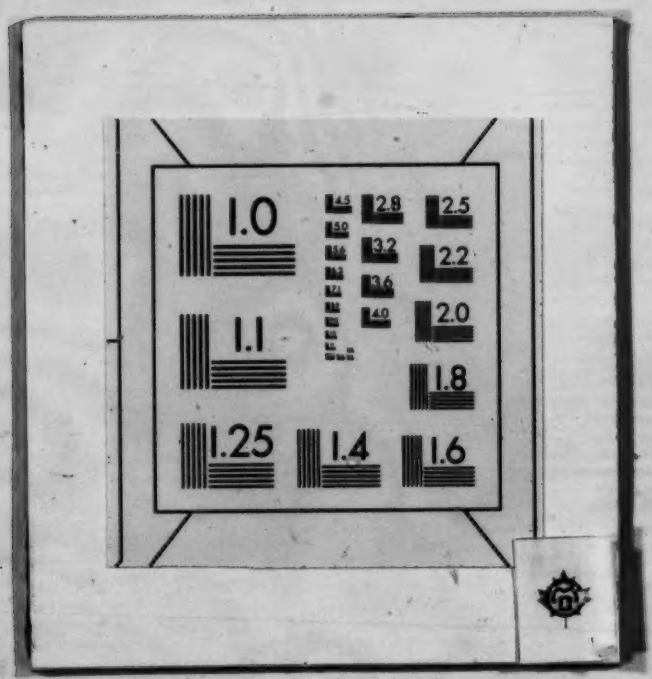

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CHAPTER V

SOME INTERDISCIPLINARY MODELS

A. An Overview

This study is an attempt to describe Community Development as a natural, on-going process that can be enhanced by the sensitive, empathetic, knowledgeable intervention of a trained Change Agent. If the application of the subject were thus interpreted by those whose job it is to facilitate social change, it is the further proposal in this study that Community Development could take its rightful place as an important, basic energizer of the social change process.

Comprehensive Planning, in its Alberta application, is often in the form of the Municipal General Plan. The process by which the GMP is derived is similar to that by which Enhanced Community Development is achieved. This Chapter, therefore, will investigate whether or not these two similar processes can, in fact, be combined to the mutual advantage of both.

Chapter II introduced three models: two of Community Development and one for General Municipal Planning. Chapter III described models for PCD and ECD, while Chapter IV discussed a series leading up to a GMP model. These paradigms were used both to illustrate the forms of the processes under study, and to reduce to their essentials the components involved.

In this Chapter, we will attempt to construct a paradigm of

Community Development that can be used across several social practice disciplines by combining the ECD process with the GMP process as earlier described.

Such a model should be fairly representative of the field of applied social action in general, because it would be composed of the two disciplines which have the most general, broad application in most societies. The art of Community Development, as of Comprehensive Planning, lies in working with groups and in helping collections of individuals achieve a better quality of life. Neither are fully technical in their own right in the sense of scientific method and technology, although both must utilize the latest "states of the art" from a number of fields. Thus, both are coordinative and, therefore, represent an approach rather than a discrete body of different material.

A model of social action that can be used by most techniques of working with groups, regardless of the specific goal or strategy, would legitimize the CD process and allow it to be recognized for what it is: a basic tool for helping people help themselves. If it can be constructed in such a way as to allow it to be used either in whole or in part by other disciplines, at the same time accepting techniques and processes from other fields into its own framework, while all the while retaining the structural integrity of that framework, then the paradigm thus evolved would be a useful tool in helping to understand and unify the disparate functions and processes extant in societal development today.

Such a model would also be extremely useful in exploring the differences of approach between the various social disciplines. There are a number of different fields of activity today, broadly categorized

by Rothman and his successors.[1] From a more pragmatic point of view, perhaps, without argument, at least the following common types of group action processes can be recognized:

1. Community Development
2. Comprehensive Planning
3. Recreation
4. Politics and government
5. Education
6. Public administration
7. Religion
8. Unionism
9. Professional
10. Military
11. Tribal and cultural
12. Fraternal.

All of these activities arise out of the impetus of groups. But, by the same token, none are usually activated without the intervention of a trained person or sub-group. All rely on groups to carry the process forward, yet all, except the first, can be highly individualistic and personal. Yet even then, reliance is placed upon a group or network of people for support.

Thus, it would seem that Community Development represents a basic attempt of society to grow and develop in the group sense. This being so, the construction of a CD paradigm that can be used by all group development processes (which in one sense are merely different forms of CD) is an important step.[2]

Comprehensive Planning affects most people, and can become a

very emotional issue, tied as it is to the use of land. It is also a basic group process, although it is more formalized and makes more specific use of technical data and input. If an ECD paradigm can be made to fit the GMP process, it is a fair bet that it can also involve most, if not all, the other processes listed. The effective derivation and analysis of such a model is the subject of this Chapter.

B. Analysis of the Two Models

The place to begin the construction of an interdisciplinary model based on the CD process is to compare the ECD and GMP models already developed in this study.[3]

The ECD model (and its extension, the CCD one) combines two processes, PCD and ECD. But it is not an amalgam: it represents the development through time of an attempt at social action and its follow-up. Similarly, the GMP model represents the synthesis of three somewhat distinct processes--legal, technical and public input. It also represents the development through time of an attempt at social action and its follow-up. But there is a difference. ECD actually results in social change, or at least in an overt attempt to achieve same. GMP is a sophisticated method of forecasting the consequences of social change and of economic activity, and of attempting to influence what otherwise might be inevitabilities in the public good. It leads to action negotiation, but not action per se. It is policy.

To put it simply, ECD is involved in direct group action; Comprehensive Planning is indirect or anticipated action. Thus, the latter is measured firstly by product and only incidentally by process; the former with process and incidentally with product. This is not to say that either is unconcerned with goals and objectives: indeed, these are

integral to both processes. It is the approach and the expectations which vary. The difference is that one develops policy (GMP), the other change (ECD).

One other point: many writers prefer to think of CD as a process in itself, just like Comprehensive Planning.[4] This view does not negate the fact that ECD is in fact a means of accomplishing a factual change rather than establishing a methodology to influence change.

From this point of view, it seems reasonable then to utilize the ECD paradigm as the basic framework of the Interdisciplinary model. This is shown as Fig. 7 in Chapter III of this study. The reader will recall that it showed the PCD model triangle used as a type of time-line along which are plotted the ECD steps. The result was a circular model (composed mostly of step parameter lines) enclosing a refined PCD triangle. This can be modified to a triangle only, for most purposes.

The ECD process begins with felt need, enhanced, perhaps, through an approach from the change agent, and flows through initiation, research, and focussing to the goal setting stage, which is the culmination of the first group discussions. The line then changes direction and goes through the planning stage to the action phase, where it changes direction again, and becomes implementation, then consolidation, and monitoring, all of which may result in new challenges which are new felt needs, and the whole process repeats itself.

The GMP paradigm consists of three actors and a major flow which fluctuates between them. In the general paradigm shown as Fig. 15 in Chapter IV, there are four sets of interrelationships which can be constantly renewed. The public input "actor" is the key to the process

as envisaged by the paradigm.

Comparing the GMP process to that of the ECD, it becomes apparent that, in general terms at least, the two are similar. To check this, a table can be drawn up fitting one against the other in their time flow. This is done below:

ECD PROCESS		GMP PROCESS		
PCD (Phase)	ACD (Step)	Legal	Technical	Public
Felt Need	Approach	Initiation		
Discussion	Initiation	Staff Appointed		Advisory Comm.
	Research		Inventory	Inventory
	Focussing		Analysis	
Goals	Goal Setting			
		Alternatives	Alternatives	Alternatives
	Planning			
		Formal Draft	Formal Draft	Formal Draft
		Bylaw Intro.		
				Public Hearing
			Final Draft	
Action	Implementation	Bylaw Enact.		
	Consolidation			
	Monitoring			Monitoring

It can be readily seen that the GMP Process can easily be assimilated into the ECD Process, especially in the Discussion Phase through the planning step. The Action phase, as has already been intimated, is quite different from anything in the GMP process. The ECD and GMP processes both have "monitoring" phases, but in the former it is <u>after</u> the main action, as a watching and recapitualtion brief, whereas in the latter it is a role of policy watchdog.

Can policy and action be assimilated together? Intuitively, we say yes: the above comparative table proves it. The GMP (policy) is quite assimilable into the ECD (action) process. But what about the other way around? Can the ECD process be put into the GMP process?

The answer, again, is yes, but this time with a qualification. Since the ECD process is in fact a "complete" process in that it not only plans for action, but in theory accomplishes it, the process is a much larger one than that of GMP. Furthermore, the GMP process involves actual legal steps.

It would appear that the ECD process is useful in the GMP process primarily as part of the Advisory, or public participation subprocess. This, in fact, allows the whole ECD process to take place, within the GMP process, since all of the elements are there: the felt need, discussion, goal setting, planning, action (influencing the drafts of the Plan), consolidation (re-planning) and monitoring.

Thus, the paradox: the entire GMP process can be thought of as a constituent of the PCD process, and vice versa.

C. Synthesis: Some Interdisciplinary Models

We now turn to the actual construction of a model of ECD that can serve an interdisciplinary purpose, using the GMP process as representative of that purpose.

A useful starting point is the observation that anything that has to do with group action has probably to do with CD, and the other disciplines represented by the GMP paradigm are also group-oriented. Furthermore, in Part B of this Chapter it was shown that the ECD and GMP processes could each accommodate the whole of the other, and the inference is that each would be enhanced by the so-doing.

Let us then take the ECD paradigm diagram and the GMP paradigm diagram and mesh them together in such a way as each can be a part of the other.

Figs. 16 and 17 are representations of this, showing two diagrams, the first depicting GMP as a sub-process of ECD, the second the reverse.

In Fig. 16, which is termed the "Interdisciplinary Model", the ECD paradigm is used as a base. Into this process is introduced the Legal and Technical aspects of the GMP process (the triangle and the square). Once the discussion in the ECD paradigm has arrived at an initial consensus--in this case to do some official planning--the legal process is invoked, which in turn can legitimize the process and begin the technical process as well. (For some purposes, of course, the group may not, in fact, need to rely on a legal process to formalize its thrust: it can move directly to the technical stage itself.) As time goes on, it is quite possible that the group may itself acquire the necessary technical ability to affect change in other fields without recourse to outside help.

Fig. 17 shows the reverse procedure: where ECD becomes the public input portion of the GMP process. As Fig. 16 is essentially the ECD triangle, so Fig. 17 is merely the GMP paradigm with the "public" circle modified.

There can be little doubt that ECD input in GMP processing makes the entire paradigm more effective, simply by ensuring that the public portion is effective. In fact, the addition of ECD practically guarantees that the public will have a large say in the process.

These two models represent two sides to the same coin and show the marvelous flexibility of scope in the ECD process.

D. Praxis: The Whitecourt Case

Chapter II of this study introduced a 1978 case in which the

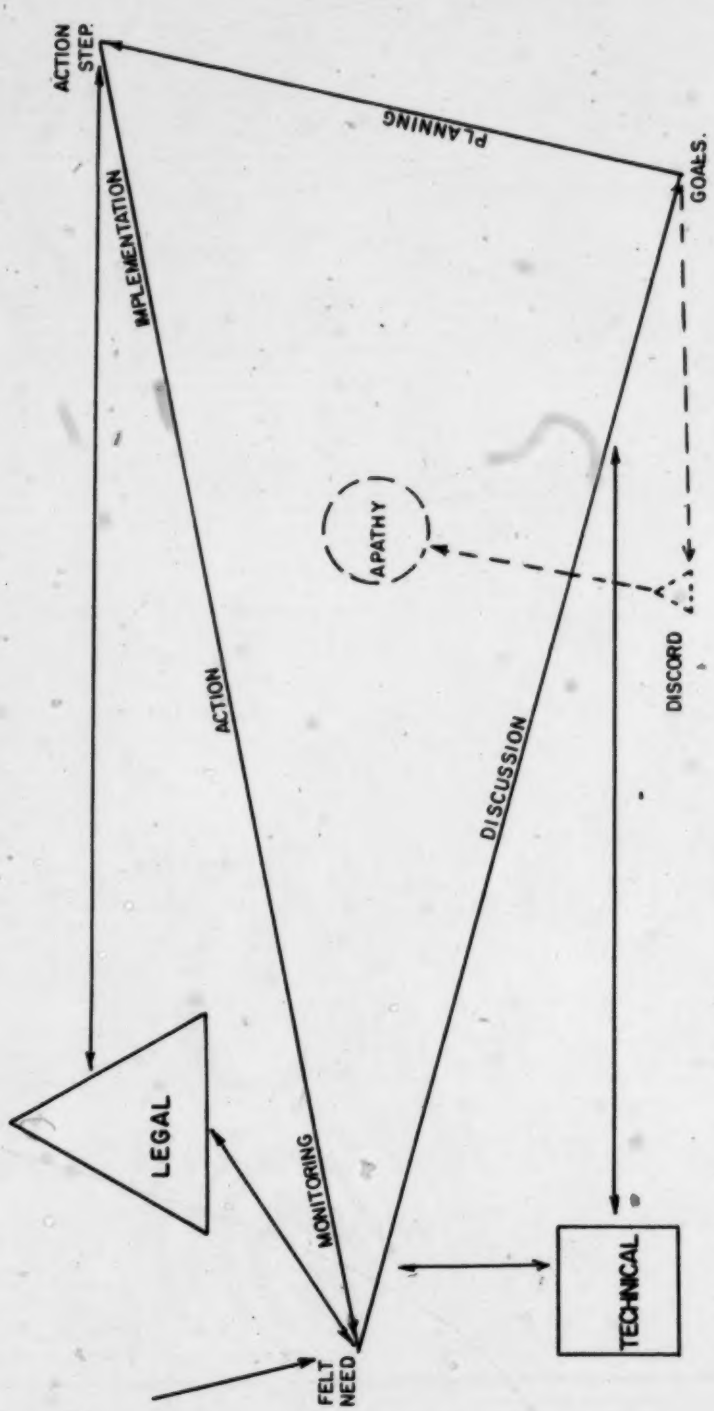

Fig. 16 The General Municipal Planning Process as Part of Community Development

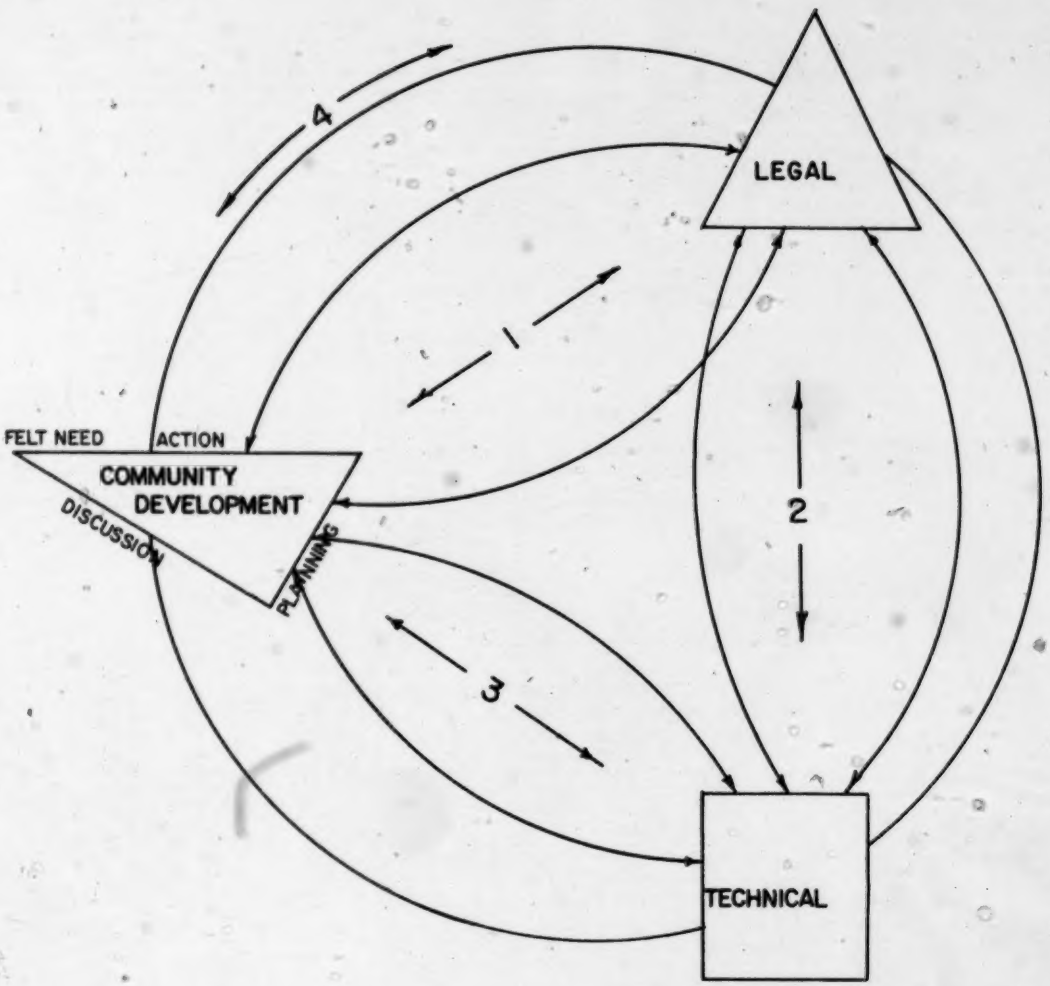

Fig. 17 Community Development as Part of the General Municipal Planning Process

Planning Department of Stanley Associates Engineering Ltd. was hired by the Town of Whitecourt to prepare a General Municipal Plan for the Community.

In part, S.A.E.L. was awarded the contract on the strength of its diagram of the GMP process, reproduced in this study as Fig. 3. This diagram was well received in the Town because of its emphasis on public participation in the process.

The Company recognized that, as an outside consultant, it would not, in the short designated time period of six months, be able to come grips with the public mood or the felt needs of individuals and groups. So a process was structured that took the ordinary citizen into account. At least that was the goal. To some extent this was realized, but--through no particular fault of the Consultants--even more participation could have been obtained had the Town and the Company been made aware of an Interdisciplinary model such as depicted in Fig. 16 or 17 of this study.

Essentially, the group of planners assigned to the Whitecourt study envisaged the public mood as being represented on the Advisory Committee. No special attempts were made to ensure that the resources of PCD were tapped, nor were attempts made to reinforce apparent public opinion through the use of an ECD approach.

The consultants thought of the process they were spearheading as having three "levels", as shown in Fig. 3. The first of these, the "Research and Analysis" functions, were envisaged as having minor public input in the form of consultations with the appointed Advisory Committee and discussions with community and senior government officials. The second level was termed "policy formulation", and here the Advisory

Committee played a massive role, along with Town Council. The third level, "Plan Formulation", was mostly a technical function, although Council, the Advisory Committee and the legally-required public meeting were all inputs.

The Advisory Committee was the main vehicle through which the public participation aspect of the GMP process was achieved. Two day-long Advisory Committee workshops were held, one before the study was well underway, the other to review and react to the draft community objectives. It was the Advisory Committee which helped present these objectives to Council. A third Advisory Committee meeting was held to review the results of the public meeting, which had been called to review the draft Plan.

As far as it went, the system worked well. Both Council and the Advisory Committee were satisfied that the resultant plan was a good one, and was in the best interests of the citizens of the Town. At the public hearing, duly called after the Plan had been drafted, there was almost no opposition to the Plan or its process and Council felt quite comfortable in giving the Plan final reading, thus enacting it as a bylaw.

The process used in Whitecourt is being held up by the Company as an example that other communities might well follow in the development of their own GMP's.

The point of this description is not necessarily to criticize or negate the undoubted merits of the Plan and its process, for both contain some new and forward-looking elements. Rather, it is the intention here to interpolate what further might have been achieved had the principles of ECD and the resultant Interdisciplinary models

been used.

A key problem that often plagues the GMP process is representation of the real, usually-unspoken public interest. This was so even in as advanced a model as that used for Whitecourt. The planners in that case took major account of the opinions of the Advisory Committee. But that Committee, though it consisted of almost 30 people (the number varied from meeting to meeting), was representative only of the groups from whence it was structured. To be sure, all the major groups in Town were seemingly represented: church groups, service organizations, teens, the schools, the elderly, the Recreation Board, the Chamber of Commerce, even the surrounding I.D. (rural district). Each of the committee members were encouraged to take the discussions back to their organization for reaction.

But, of course, reaction, in a community, may not necessarily represent true Community involvement, for it may focus on issues which are induced: it may introduce ascribed need rather than focussing felt need. The Advisory Committee tried to do a good job and, in fact, probably did insofar as it was able. But it represented groups that may or may not have chosen the issues under discussion.

Two other weaknesses were also apparent. First, only major, easily-recognized groups were offered the chance to participate. This effectively biases the results because it predetermines participation. Secondly, there was not enough time available for the information to reach the roots of any of the organizations. What was fed to them was carried by one person who, while representing the group, may not have been truly representative of the group. And the interpretations did not have enough time to become neutral in the sense that the whole

group could react.

The ECD model developed in this study is a function of a deeper, pro-active surge called Perpetual Community Development. Since that is present in any and every group, it follows that the whole function of the Advisory Committee should have been pro-active rather than reactive. This could have been accomplished through a preliminary meeting of the Advisory Committee, augmented by any other person who wished to attend. At this meeting, the purpose of the GMP process could have been explained and the run of the process deliberated in detail. Those present could then have gone back to their own groups and, with the help of the planners or other change agents, skillfully drawn forth those felt needs which seemed to be addressable by a GMP. Then the Advisory Committee could have reconvened with real strength of opinion.

If the propensity of groups to effect some sort of Community Development regardless of the existence of a formalized process to focus it, the planners might have been able to take advantage of that fact to achieve an even higher level of "public participation". Even more importantly, the planners might have been able to increase the quality as well as the quantity of that input by following the suggestions and models contained in this study.

For example, Fig. 13 diagrams the three types of public involvement discussed in Chapter IV. Here, also, is a "Review Committee", but the function of it in this case is to gather the three kinds of "evidence"--hard, formal and soft. Since "hard" evidence comprises statistics, documents, letters-to-the-editor, questionnaires and other written expressions of opinion, "formal" involves briefs and minutes of

public and Review Committee meetings, and "soft" the verbal representations made in a variety of ways, most of the avenues of expression from both individual and groups could be gathered.

If Fig. 14 (the GMP Full Process) had been utilized in Whitecourt, and had this been inserted into the paradigm shown in Fig. 15, the contention of this study is that the public involvement would not only have been heightened, its quality would have been deepened. This is because, under the proposed system, public involvement takes an equal place with the technical and legal involvements. None is more or less important than another, and all have equal influence in the final outcome.

Taking this a step further, if the Whitecourt Plan had been prepared according to the principles of the Interdisciplinary models as shown in Figs. 16 and 17, the Town could have been fully assured that its citizens would have had as full an influence on their General Municipal Plan as conditions would allow.

Fig. 16 shows the GMP process as part of an extended ECD one. In the Whitecourt case, the Advisory Committee could have represented the final ECD paradigm, and governed itself according to the flows in the diagram. Felt needs at the grass-roots level could have been discussed at the Committee level, with input from other groups and from the technical people. The planning and goal-setting could take place both on the group and then the Committee level. Had it been possible, the Committee might have been organized before the GMP process and the consultants were brought into the picture. In this scenario, it would be the Committee which would initiate the process by approaching Council to have a GMP done. Through this kind of interaction at all levels,

some of the initial roiling might have taken place even before the consultants were hired, thus allowing them to complete their parts of the process as efficiently as possible.

Thus Fig. 17, which shows Community Development as an integral part of the GMP process, would represent an efficient, effective method of preparing a Plan with the most and perhaps best possible public involvement.

E. Analysis and Conclusions

What do Figs. 16 and 17 indicate? The following list indicates some of the more significant considerations:

1. There exists a vast similarity between CD and Comprehensive Planning (CP) even to the point where each can become subservient to the other without loss of identity or influence.
2. The base of it all is the conversion of PCD ("people power") from unproductive roiling into positive discussion and action. This takes artful maneuvering.
3. The key process which motivates action is careful discussion and planning. Both processes coincide precisely here.
4. Because it is so resilient and has no particular scale at which it must be manifest, CD is an especially useful tool for any like profession.
5. As compared to GMP, CD is a wholistic process, yet it can be used for small inputs as well.
6. CD lends itself, through this model, to a series of fields, such as education, public service, government, politics, recreation, preventive social service, and any other that has the necessary three components: need, goals and action,

and where the impetus comes from or through groups.

7. It seems probable that the reason CD seems so amenable to other situations is that these others are in fact facets of CD in the first place. And it seems equally correct that the reverse is true as well.

And so the thrust of this study comes full circle--from a primitive, sporadic but inexhaustible Perpetual Community Development as a function of groups, to a state of perpetual impetus for change, modified and immensely strengthened by other related disciplines. Along the way were human intervention (Enhanced Community Development) and Continuous CD.

What does all this mean? Is the study built upon biases inherent in the geometry of the models, or is it based upon false assumptions in the first place?

Community Development does not lend itself per se to definitive analytical measurement and, therefore, this accepted method of proof is unavailable. But just as significant, particularly in interpreting social actions, is whether or not the models reflect real world possibilities. A major thesis of this study is that Perpetual Community Development is real. If this is so, then the base of the study is strong, because what is termed "Enhanced Community Development" is mainly as described in the literature and as observed in the field.[5] Enhanced Community Development is itself a logical development of the combination of these two. Continuous Community Development may not yet exist, and yet we cannot be sure. But it must surely pass through the ECD stage first.

Similarly, the General Municipal Planning Process in Alberta is

a real one. It does not always follow a formula, nor should it be expected to. But more than one professional planner has studied the proposed paradigm in this study and agreed it represents a reasonable description of the general practice (with the exception, as already noted, that the public participation portion has not yet developed in the field as it should).[6]

The Interdisciplinary models, shown in Figs. 16 and 17, are theoretical. Therefore, in the sense that a given programme may deviate from it, or indeed perhaps not follow it at all (although this is improbable), it nevertheless shows how two social disciplines can come together for the benefit of both.

The models show, more clearly than words, how important and basic Community Development is to effective social action of any kind. They show its extraordinary power of assimilation and assimilability. And they indicate how, in future machinations, the ECD paradigm can contribute to the eternal quest for a higher quality of life.

Fig. 19 is a summary chart of the main characteristics of the three phases of Community Development as discussed in this study. It shows a total of 15 ways in which the three can be compared. It is useful as a quick reference table.

Thus, Community Development, if utilized in its ECD form, need not be a marginal effort in the field of applied social change, but its very base, from which new practices and insights may flow.

CHARACTERISTIC	PERPETUAL	ENHANCED	CONTINUOUS
Initiation	Result of group restlessness	Result of sensitive intervention	Result of experience
Process	Natural, unpredictable, on-going	Focussed and managed	Focussed and self-managed
Adaptability	Often unwieldy, slow	High	Complete
Apathy level	High	Decreasing	Low
Incidence of discord	High	Decreasing	Low
Motivation	Low, often unrecognized	Consolidated and mobilized	High
Change effort	Sluggish	Increasingly efficient	Conscious and purposeful
Type of change	Reactive, issue-oriented	Reactive, goal-oriented	Pro-active, goal-oriented
Planning and goal setting	None or short-term	Increasingly effective	Positive and continuous
Action phase	Short, often uncoordinated	As long as possible	Self-directed, effective
Achievement level	Usually low	Often high	Usually high
Follow-through	Seldom, if ever	Always	Always
Change consolidation	Unusual and inefficient	Usual and efficient	Always and necessary
Monitoring	Seldom, if ever	Probable	Probable
Group enhancement	Slow, uneven	Increasing	Continuing self-actualization

Fig. 19 Some Characteristics of the Three Stages of Community Development

Notes and References - Chapter V

1. See J. Rothman's famous article, "Three Models of Community Organization Practice" in the book Social Work Practice (New York: Columbia Press, 1968).

2. Several relatively successful models have been done for social change and its elements. See G. Lippitt, Visualizing Change (Fairfax, Va.: NTL Learning Resources Corporation, 1973).

3. See Figs. 5, 6, 7, 13 and 14.

4. The fact is, CD is process, articulated as action thrust. GMP is policy planning, manifested as process.

5. As has been pointed out (Chapter II) a great deal of the literature on the subject is concerned with either describing case studies of community action or conveying guidelines and tips on how to involve people to action.

6. People who have reviewed the models include R. R. Erickson, MCIP, H. K. Driver, MCIP and D. Makale, MCIP. All of these are respected, senior planners in the Edmonton area.

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